

INITIAL DEFINITION OF ARGUMENT

To help us define argument, let's turn from the heady realm of higher education to a more humble but universal situation, one often associated with arguing: the conflict between parents and children over rules. All of us have probably engaged in that occasional parent-child skirmish. Some of us have had the dubious pleasure of being on both sides of the issue. In what way and in what circumstances do these conflicts constitute arguments?

Consider the following dialogue:

YOUNG PERSON (racing for the front door while putting coat on): "Bye, guys. See you later."

PARENTS (in unison): "Whoa! What time are you planning on coming home?"

YOUNG PERSON (coolly, hand still on doorknob): "I'm sure we discussed this earlier. I'll be home around 2 A.M." (The second sentence, spoken very rapidly, is barely audible.)

PARENTS (with clenched jaws after exchange of puzzled looks): "We did *not* discuss this earlier and you're *not* staying out 'til two in the morning. You'll be home at twelve."

At this point in the exchange, we have a disagreement but not, we would claim, an argument. A disagreement involves the exchange of two or more antagonistic assertions without any attempt to provide reasons for them. The key to whether or not a disagreement can become an argument is how the participants go about defending their assertions. If the dialogue never gets past the "Yes-you-will/No-I-won't" stage, it either remains a disagreement or turns into a fight, depending on how much heat and volume the participants generate.

Let us say, however, that the dialogue takes the following turn:

YOUNG PERSON (tragically): "But I'm *sixteen years old!*"

Now we've got an argument. Not, to be sure, a particularly well-developed or cogent one, but an argument all the same. It's now an argument because one of the combatants has offered a reason for her assertion. Her choice of curfew is satisfactory, she says, *because* she is sixteen years old, an argument that depends on the unstated assumption that sixteen-year-olds are old enough to make decisions about such matters.

The parents can now respond in one of several ways that will either advance the argument or turn it back into a disagreement. They can simply invoke parental authority ("I don't care—you're still coming home at twelve"), in which case argument ceases, or they can provide a reason for their own position ("You will be home at twelve because we pay the bills around here"), in which case the argument takes a new turn. But enough is enough. We'll leave this little domestic tiff before Young Person has a chance

to invoke her major piece of empirical evidence ("But all my friends are allowed to stay out 'til two") and the parents respond with theirs ("But we certainly never stayed out that late when we were your age").

So far we've established two necessary conditions that must be met before we're willing to call something an argument: (1) a set of two or more conflicting assertions and (2) the attempt to resolve the conflict through an appeal to reason.

But a good argument demands more. For the argument to be effective, an arguer is obligated to clarify and support the reasons presented. For example, "But I'm sixteen years old!" is not yet a clear support for the assertion "I should be allowed to set my own curfew." On the surface, Young Person's argument seems absurd. Her parents, of all people, know precisely how old she is. What makes it an argument is the unstated assumption behind her reason—all sixteen-year-olds are old enough to set their own curfews. What Young Person needs to do now is to defend that assumption.* In doing so, she must anticipate the sorts of questions the assumption will raise in the minds of the parents: What is the legal status of sixteen-year-olds? How psychologically mature, as opposed to chronologically mature, is Young Person? What is the actual track record of Young Person in being responsible? and so forth. Each of these questions will force Young Person to reexamine and clarify her assumptions about the proper degree of autonomy for sixteen-year-olds. And her response to those questions should in turn force the parents to reexamine their assumptions about the dependence of sixteen-year-olds on parental guidance and wisdom. (Likewise, the parents will need to show why "paying the bills around here" automatically gives them the right to set Young Person's curfew.)

In arguing, then, we often find ourselves in the uncomfortable position of being forced to clarify our reasoning and thus of having to justify ideas we had always comfortably assumed. Doing so can be a frustrating and humbling experience. Here we are encountering one of the earliest senses of the term *to argue*, which is "to clarify." An argument, according to one of the first definitions of the word, was "the naked setting forth of ideas." We still see this sense of the term when people read through an essay and say, "As I understand it, your argument here is. . . ." The argument is the core of the essay, which can be abstracted out and "set forth nakedly." In addition, when philosophers translate complex statements into the formal code of logic, they do so to reveal the "argument" at the core. Thus, a logician might translate Young Person's justification into something like this:

All sixteen-year-olds are old enough to stay out until 2:00 A.M.

I am a sixteen-year-old.

Therefore, I am old enough to stay out until 2:00 A.M.

* Later in this text (Chapter 5) we call this assumption a warrant.

Likewise, they might show the parents' argument this way:

Whoever pays the bills in the household has a right to set the rules.

The parents do pay the bills in the household.

Therefore, the parents have the right to set the rules.

Setting forth the argument in this fashion allows us to focus on the logical structure of the arguments. To our way of thinking, neither Young Person nor the parents have yet created a strong argument for their positions since we would take issue with the first statement in both of these three-statement structures.

Thus, in our view, any argument worth its salt should eventually lead toward clarification of the issue rather than increasing obscurity. Our emphasis on argument as clarification is an expression of our own assumptions about the function of argument. Although we are concerned with teaching people how to write persuasive arguments, we are more concerned with teaching them how to write arguments that advance understanding—their own understanding as much as their audience's or opponents' understanding. Thus, we think it may be more important for Young Person and the parents to work out a mutual understanding of the relationship between teenage maturity and parental responsibility than it is for either side to win the midnight versus 2 A.M. debate.

CLARIFICATION OR VICTORY? THE DEBATE BETWEEN SOCRATES AND CALLICLES

The issue we've just raised—whether the purpose of argument is clarification or victory—is one of the oldest in the field of argumentation. One of the first great debates on the subject occurs in Plato's dialogue *The Gorgias*, in which the philosopher Socrates takes on the rhetorician Callicles.

By way of background to the dispute, Socrates was a great philosopher known to us today primarily through the dialogues of his student Plato, who depicted Socrates in debates with various antagonists and friends. Socrates' goal in these debates was to try to rid the world of error. In dialogue after dialogue, Socrates vanquishes error by skillfully leading people through a series of questions that force them to recognize the inconsistency and implausibility of their beliefs. He was a sort of intellectual judo master who takes opponents' arguments the way they want to go until they suddenly fall over.

Callicles, on the other hand, is a shadowy figure in history. We know him only through his exchange with Socrates. But he's immediately recognizable to philosophers as a representative of the Sophists, a group of teachers who taught ancient Athenians how to be "successful," much as authors of contemporary self-help books offer to teach us how to make more money, be better looking, and look out for Number One. The Sophists were a favorite,

if elusive, target of both Socrates and Plato. Indeed, opposition to the Sophists' self-centered, utilitarian approach to life is at the core of Platonic philosophy. Now let's look at the dialogue.

Early in the debate, Socrates is clearly in control. He easily—too easily as it turns out—wins a couple of preliminary rounds against some less determined Sophists before confronting Callicles. But in the long and arduous debate that follows, it's not at all clear that Socrates wins. In fact, one of the points being made in *The Gorgias* seems to be that philosophers committed to discovering truth may occasionally have to sacrifice winning the debate. If Callicles doesn't necessarily win the argument, he certainly gives pause to idealists, who like to see the purpose of argument as truth for its own sake. Although Plato makes an eloquent case for enlightenment as the goal of argument, he may well contribute to the demise of this noble principle if he should happen to lose. Unfortunately, it appears that Socrates can't win the argument without sinning against the very principle he's defending.

The effectiveness of Callicles as a debater lies in his refusal to allow Socrates *any* assumptions. In response to Socrates' concern for virtue and justice, Callicles responds sneeringly that such concepts are mere conventions, invented by the weak to protect themselves from the strong. In Callicles' world, "might makes right." And the function of argument in such a world is to extend the freedom and power of the arguer, not to arrive at some arbitrary notion of truth or justice. Indeed, the power to decide what's "true and just" belongs to the winner of the debate. For Callicles, a truth that never wins is no truth at all because it will soon disappear. In sum, Callicles, like a modern-day pitchman, sees the ends (winning the argument) justifying the means (refusing to grant any assumptions, using ambiguous language, and so forth). Socrates, on the other hand, believes that no good end can come from questionable means.

As you can probably tell, our own sympathies are with Socrates and his view of argument as enlightenment and clarification. But Socrates lived in a much simpler world than we do, if by "simple" we mean a world where the True and the Good can be confidently known. For Socrates, there was one True Answer to any important question. Truth resided in the ideal world of forms, and through philosophic rigor humans could transcend the changing, shadow-like world of everyday reality to perceive the world of universals where Truth, Beauty, and Goodness resided. Even though our sympathies are with Socrates, we acknowledge that Callicles had a vision of truth closer to that of our modern world. Callicles forces us to confront the nature of truth itself. Is there only one possible truth at which all arguments will necessarily arrive? Can there be degrees of truth or different kinds of truths for different situations or cultures? How "true" is a truth if you can't get anybody to accept it? Before we can attempt to resolve the debate between Socrates and Callicles, therefore, it will be useful to look more closely at some notions of truth in the modern world.

WHAT IS TRUTH? THE PLACE OF ARGUMENT IN CONTEMPORARY LIFE

Although the debate between Socrates and Callicles appears to end inconclusively, many readers over the centuries conceded the victory to Socrates almost by default. Callicles was seen as cheating. Sophistry, for good reasons, was synonymous with trickery in argument. The moral relativism of the Sophists was so repugnant to most people that they refused to concede that the Sophists' position might have some merits or that their methodology might be turned to other ends. In our century, however, the Sophists have found a more sympathetic readership, one that takes some of the questions they raised quite seriously. Indeed, the fact that the Sophists are no longer dismissed out of hand is evidence of the shift away from a Platonic world where there was a single, knowable Truth attainable by rational means.

One way of tracing this shift in attitude toward truth is by looking at a significant shift in the definition of the verb *to argue* over the centuries. We have already mentioned that one early meaning of *to argue* was "to clarify." Another early meaning was "to prove." Argument was closely associated with demonstrations of the sort you see in math classes when you move from axioms to proofs through formulae. An argument of this sort is virtually irrefutable—unless we play Callicles and reject the axioms.

Today, on the other hand, *to argue* is usually taken to mean something like "to provide grounds for inferring." Instead of demonstrating some preexisting truth, an argument can hope only to make an audience more likely to agree with its conclusions. The better the argument, the better grounds one provides, the more likely the audience will infer what the arguer has inferred. One contemporary philosopher says that argument can hope only to "increase adherence" to ideas, not absolutely convince an audience of the necessary truth of ideas.

In the twentieth century, absolute, demonstrable truth is seen by many thinkers, from physicists to philosophers, as an illusion. Some would argue that truth is merely a product of human beings' talking and arguing with each other. These thinkers say that with regard to questions of interpretation, meaning, or value, one can never tell for certain whether an assertion is true—not by examining the physical universe more closely nor by reasoning one's way toward some Platonic form nor by receiving a mystical revelation. The closest one can come to truth is through the confirmation of one's views from others in a community of peers. "Truth" in any field of knowledge, say these thinkers, is simply an agreement of experts in that field.

As you can see, the world depicted by many twentieth-century thinkers, although it is certainly different from the world depicted by Callicles, has some important similarities to the Sophists' world view. Whatever else we may say about it, it is a world in which we look toward our so-

cial groups more than toward the world of objects to test our beliefs and ideas.

To illustrate the relevance of Callicles to contemporary society, suppose for the moment that we wanted to ask whether sexual fidelity is a virtue. A Socratic approach would assume a single, real Truth about the value of sexual fidelity, one that could be discovered through a gradual peeling away of wrong answers. Callicles' approach would assume that the value of sexual fidelity is culturally relative, so Callicles would point out all the societies in which monogamous fidelity for one or both sexes is not the norm. Clearly, our world is more like Callicles'. We are all exposed to multiple cultural perspectives directly and indirectly. Through TV, newspapers, travel, and education we experience ways of thinking and valuing that are different from our own. It is difficult to ignore the fact that our personal values are not universally shared or even respected. Thus, we're all faced with the need to justify our ideas in such a diverse society.

FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

On any given day, newspapers provide evidence of the complexity of living in a pluralist culture. Issues that could be readily decided in a completely homogeneous culture raise many questions for us in a society that has few shared assumptions.

What follows are three brief news stories that appeared on Associated Press wires in late fall 1993. Choose one or more of the stories and conduct a "simulation game" in which various class members role-play the points of view of the characters involved in the controversy. If you choose the first case, for example, one class member should role-play the attorney of the woman refusing the Caesarian section, another the "court-appointed representative of the woman's fetus," and another the doctor. If you wish, conduct a court hearing in which other members role-play a judge, cross-examining attorneys, and a jury. No matter which case you choose, your class's goal should be to represent each point of view as fully and sympathetically as possible to help you realize the complexity of the values in conflict.

ILLINOIS COURT WON'T HEAR CASE OF MOM WHO REFUSES SURGERY

CHICAGO—A complex legal battle over a Chicago woman's refusal to undergo a Caesarean section, even though it could save the life of her unborn child, essentially was settled yesterday when the state's highest court refused to hear the case. 1

The court declined to review a lower court's ruling that the woman should not be forced to submit to surgery in a case that pitted the rights of the woman, referred to in court as "Mother Doe," against those of her fetus.

The 22-year-old Chicago woman, now in the 37th week of her pregnancy, refused her doctors' advice to have the surgery because she believes God intended her to deliver the child naturally.

The woman's attorneys argued that the operation would violate her constitutional rights to privacy and the free exercise of her religious beliefs.

Cook County Public Guardian Patrick Murphy, the court-appointed representative of the woman's fetus, said he would file a petition with the U.S. Supreme Court asking it to hear the case. He has 90 days to file the petition, but he acknowledged future action would probably come too late.

Doctors say the fetus is not receiving enough oxygen from the placenta and will either die or be retarded unless it is delivered by Caesarean section. Despite that diagnosis, the mother has stressed her faith in God's healing powers and refused doctors' advice to submit to the operation.

MARYLAND COURT STRIKES DOWN STATE'S CROSS-BURNING LAW

ANNAPOLIS, Md.—Maryland's cross-burning law was struck down as unconstitutional yesterday by the state's highest court, whose judges said it interfered with free speech.

U.S. Supreme Court rulings make clear that burning a cross or other religious symbol qualifies as speech under the First Amendment, the Maryland Court of Appeals said in a unanimous ruling.

"The open and deliberate burning of religious symbols is, needless to say, odious to thoughtful members of our society," wrote Chief Judge Robert Murphy in an opinion joined by six other judges.

"But the Constitution does not allow the unnecessary trammeling of free expression even for the noblest of purposes."

The decision affirmed a circuit-court ruling dismissing charges in two Prince George's County cases. In one case, a cross was burned on the property of an African-American family; in the other case, on public property.

The Maryland law, which was adopted in 1966, made it illegal to burn a cross on private property without getting permission of the landowner and notifying the local fire department.

HOMELESS HIT THE STREETS TO PROTEST PROPOSED BAN

SEATTLE—The homeless stood up for themselves by sitting down in a peaceful but vocal protest yesterday in Seattle's University District.

About 50 people met at noon to criticize a proposed set of city ordinances that would ban panhandlers from sitting on sidewalks, put them in jail for repeatedly urinating in public, and crack down on "intimidating" street behavior.

"Sitting is not a crime," read poster boards that feature mug shots of Seattle City Attorney Mark Sidran, who is pushing for the new laws. . . . "This is city property; the police want to tell us we can't sit here," yelled one man named R.C. as he sat cross-legged outside a pizza establishment.

Marsha Shaiman stood outside the University Book Store holding a poster and waving it at passing cars. She is not homeless, but was one of many activists in the crowd. "I qualify as a privileged white yuppie," she said. "I'm offended that the privileged people in this country are pointing at the poor, and people of color, and say they're causing problems. They're being used as scapegoats."

Many local merchants support the ban saying that panhandlers hurt business by intimidating shoppers and fouling the area with the odor of urine, vomited wine, and sometimes even feces.

The Core of an Argument: A Claim with Reasons

THE RHETORICAL TRIANGLE

Before looking at the way arguments are structured, we should recognize that arguments occur within a social context. They are produced by writers or speakers who are addressing an audience—a relationship that can be visualized as a triangle with points labeled “message,” “writer/speaker,” and “audience” (see Figure 4–1). In composing an effective argument, writers must concern themselves with all three elements of this “rhetorical triangle.” As we will see in later chapters, when you alter one point of the triangle (for example, you change the audience for whom you are writing or you re-imagine the role you want to take as a writer—switching, say, from angry protestor to listening friend), then you may also need to restructure the message itself.

The rhetorical triangle’s focus on message, speaker/writer, and audience relates also to the three kinds of persuasive appeals identified by classical rhetoricians: *logos*, *ethos*, and *pathos*.

Logos (Greek for “word”) refers to the internal consistency of the message—the clarity of its claim, the logic of its reasons, and the effectiveness of its supporting evidence. The impact of *logos* on an audience is sometimes called the argument’s “logical appeal.”

Ethos (Greek for “character”) refers to the trustworthiness or credibility of the writer or speaker. *Ethos* is often conveyed through the tone and style of the message and through the way the writer or speaker refers to opposing views. It can also be affected by the writer’s reputation as it exists independently from the message—his or her expertise

in the field, his or her previous record of integrity, and so forth. The impact of *ethos* is often called the argument’s “ethical appeal” or the “appeal from credibility.”

Our third term, *pathos* (Greek for “emotion”), is perhaps the most difficult to define. It refers to the impact of the message on the audience, the power with which the writer’s message moves the audience to decision or action. Although *pathos* refers primarily to the emotional appeal of an argument, it is difficult to disentangle such appeals from the logical structure of an argument. As we show in the following chapters, a successful logical structure is rooted in assumptions, values, or beliefs shared by the audience so that an effective logical appeal necessarily evokes a reader’s or listener’s emotions. Whereas *logos* engages our rational faculties, *logos* and *pathos* together engage our imaginations. The impact of *pathos* on an audience is often called the “appeal to emotions” or the “motivational appeal.”

Using the rhetorical triangle, we can create a checklist of questions that can help a writer plan, draft, and revise an argument (see Figure 4–1). As the checklist suggests, writers should consider ways to make their messages as logically sound and well developed as possible, but they should also take care to link their arguments to the values and beliefs of the audience and to convey an image of themselves as credible and trustworthy.

The chapters in Part II of this text treat all three elements in the rhetorical triangle. Chapters 4–6 are concerned primarily with *logos*, whereas Chapter 7 is concerned with *pathos* and *ethos*. However, all these terms overlap so that it is impossible to make neat separations among them.

Given this background on the rhetorical triangle, we are ready now to turn to *logos*—the logic and structure of arguments.

ISSUE QUESTIONS AS THE ORIGINS OF ARGUMENT

At the heart of any argument is an issue, which we can define as a topic area such as “criminal rights” or “the minimum wage,” that gives rise to a dispute or controversy. A writer can usually focus an issue by asking an issue question that invites at least two opposing answers. Within any complex issue—for example, the issue of abortion—there are usually a number of separate issue questions: Should abortions be legal? Should the federal government authorize Medicaid payments for abortions? When does a fetus become a human being (at conception? at three months? at quickening? at birth?)? What are the effects of legalizing abortion? (One person might stress that legalized

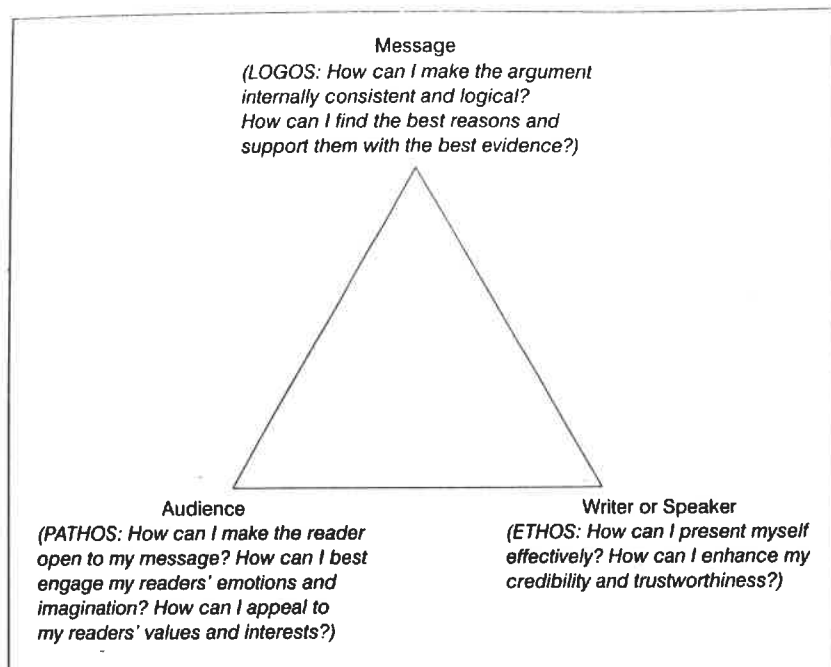


FIGURE 4-1 The rhetorical triangle

abortion leads to greater freedom for women; another person might respond that it lessens a society's respect for human life.)

Difference Between an Issue Question and an Information Question

Of course, not all questions are issue questions that can be answered reasonably in two or more opposing ways; thus, not all questions can lead to effective argument essays. Rhetoricians have traditionally distinguished between "explication," which is writing that sets out to inform or explain, and "argumentation," which sets out to change a reader's mind. On the surface, at least, this seems like a useful distinction. If a reader is interested in a writer's question mainly to gain new knowledge about a subject, then the writer's essay could be considered explication rather than argument. According to this view, the following questions about abortion might be called information questions rather than issue questions:

How does the abortion rate in the United States compare with the rate in Sweden?

If the rates are different, why?

Although both questions seem to call for information rather than for argument, we believe the latter one would be an issue question if reasonable people disagreed on the answer. Thus, two writers might agree that abortion rates in the United States and Sweden differ significantly, but they might disagree in their explanations of why. One might say that Sweden has a higher abortion rate because of the absence of a large Catholic or conservative Protestant population in the country. The other might say, "No, the real reasons are linked to the country's economic structure." Thus, underneath the surface of what looks like a simple explication of the "truth" is really a controversy.

You can generally tell whether a question is an issue question or an information question by examining your purpose in relationship to your audience. If your relationship to your audience is that of teacher or learner, so that your audience hopes to gain new information, knowledge, or understanding that you possess, then your question is probably an information question. But if your relationship to your audience is that of advocate to decision maker or jury, so that your audience needs to make up its mind on something and is weighing different points of view, then the question you address is an issue question. Often the same question can be an information question in one context and an issue question in another. Let's look at the following examples:

- How does a diesel engine work? (This is probably an information question since reasonable people who know about diesel engines will probably agree on how they work. This question would be posed by an audience of new learners.)
- Why is a diesel engine more fuel-efficient than a gasoline engine? (This also seems to be an information question since all experts will probably agree on the answer. Once again, the audience seems to be new learners, perhaps students in an automotive class.)
- What is the most cost-effective way to produce diesel fuel from crude oil? (This could be an information question if experts agree and you are addressing new learners. But if you are addressing engineers and one engineer says process X is the most cost-effective and another argues for process Y, then the question is an issue question.)
- Should the present highway tax on diesel fuel be increased? (This is certainly an issue question. One person says yes; another says no; another offers a compromise.)

FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

Working as a class or in small groups, try to decide which of the following questions are information questions and which are issue questions. Many of them could be either, depending on the rhetorical context. For such questions, create hypothetical contexts to show your reasoning.

1. What percentage of single-parent families receive welfare support?

2. What is the cause for the recent dramatic increases in the number of out-of-wedlock births in the United States?
3. Should the United States eliminate welfare support for unwed mothers?
4. What percentage of TV shows during prime-time hours depict violence?
5. What is the effect of violent TV shows on children?
6. Are chiropractors legitimate health professionals?
7. How does chiropractic treatment of illness differ from a medical doctor's treatment?
8. Are extended-wear contact lenses safe?
9. Should a woman with a newly detected breast cancer opt for a radical mastectomy (complete removal of the breast and surrounding lymph tissue) or a lumpectomy (removal of the malignant lump without removal of the whole breast)?
10. Is Simone de Beauvoir correct in calling marriage an outdated, oppressive, capitalist institution?

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN A GENUINE ARGUMENT AND A PSEUDO-ARGUMENT

We have said that the heart of an argument is an issue question that invites two or more competing answers. This does not mean, however, that every disagreement between people can lead to a rational argument. Rational arguments depend also on two additional factors: (1) reasonable participants, that is, participants who agree to operate within the conventions of reasonable behavior, and (2) potentially shareable assumptions that can serve as a starting place or foundation for the argument. You should learn to recognize the difference between genuine arguments, which proceed reasonably, and pseudo-arguments, which generate a lot of heat but are as irresolvable as a game of chess in which the players do not agree on how the pieces move.

Pseudo-arguments: Fanatics and Skeptics

As you know, many arguments that at first seem like reasonable disputes are really shouting matches masquerading as arguments. Without really listening to each other, these disputants carry on into the night asserting as facts statements they are unsure of, citing vague authorities, moving illogically into tangential issues, and trying, in general, to rationalize a position based more on feeling and opinion than on careful thought.

Often such disputants belong to one of two classes, Fanatics and Skeptics. Fanatics are people who believe their claims are true because they say so, period. Oh, they may assure us that their claims rest on some authoritative text—the Bible, the *Communist Manifesto*, Benjamin Spock's books on child

raising—but in the end it's their narrow and quirky reading of the text, a reading claiming to be fact, that underlies their argument. When you disagree with a Fanatic, therefore, you'll get a desk-thumping rehash of the Fanatic's preconceived convictions.

The Skeptic, on the other hand, dismisses the possibility that anything could be proven right. Because the sun has risen every day in recorded history is inadequate reason for the Skeptic to claim that it will rise tomorrow. Short of absolute proof, which never exists, Skeptics accept no proof. Skeptics, in short, do not understand that an argument cannot be a proof. We can hope that a good argument will increase its readers "adherence" to a claim by making the claim more plausible, more worthy of consideration, but only rarely will it eliminate doubt or overcome the influence of opposing views. In the presence of Fanatics or Skeptics, then, genuine argument becomes impossible.

Another Source of Pseudo-arguments: Lack of Shared Assumptions

A reasonable argument is difficult to conduct unless the participants share common assumptions on which the argument can be grounded. These assumptions are like axioms in geometry or the self-evident truths in the Declaration of Independence—starting points or foundations for the argument. Consider the following conversation in which Randall refuses to accept Rhonda's assumptions.

RHONDA: Smoking is bad because it causes cancer. (Rhonda assumes that Randall will agree with her that cancer is bad. This is the assumption that lets her say that smoking is bad.)

RANDALL: I agree that smoking causes cancer, but what's so bad about that? I like cancer. (Rhonda looks at him in amazement.)

RHONDA: Come on, Randy! Cancer is bad because it causes suffering and death. (Now she hopes Randall will accept her new assumption that suffering and death are bad.)

RANDALL: What's so bad about suffering and death?

RHONDA: Suffering reduces pleasure, while death is a total absence of being. That's awful!

RANDALL: No way. I am a masochist, so I like suffering. And if you don't have any being, you can't feel anything anyway.

RHONDA: O.K., wise guy. Let's assume that instead of absence of being you are dropped head-first into an everlasting lake of boiling oil where you must stay for eternity.

RANDALL: Hey, I said I was a masochist.

As you can see, the conversation becomes ludicrous because Randall refuses to share Rhonda's assumptions. Rhonda's self-evident "truths"

(cancer is bad, suffering is bad, an everlasting lake of boiling oil is bad) seem to have no force for Randall. Without assumptions held in common, an argument degenerates into an endless regress of reasons that are based on more reasons that are based on still more reasons, and so forth. Randall's technique here is a bit like Callicles' rebuttals of Socrates—a refusal to accept the starting points of Socrates' argument. Attacking an argument's assumptions is, in fact, a legitimate way of deepening and complicating our understanding of an issue. But taken to an extreme, this technique makes argument impossible.

Perhaps you think the above argument about smoking is a cornball case that would never crop up in real situations. In fact, however, a slight variation of it is extremely common. We encounter the problem every time we argue about purely personal opinions: opera is boring, New York City is too big, pizza tastes better than nachos, baseball is more fun than soccer. The problem with these disputes is that they rest on personal preferences rather than on shared assumptions. In other words, there are no common criteria for "boring" or "too big" or "tastes better" that writer and reader can share.

Of course, reasonable arguments about these disputes become possible once common assumptions are established. For example, a nutritionist could argue that pizza is better than nachos because it provides more balanced nutrients per calorie. Such an argument can succeed if the disputants accept the nutritionist's assumption that "more balanced nutrients per calorie" is a criterion for "better." But if one of the disputants responds, "Nah, nachos are better than pizza because nachos taste better," then he makes a different assumption—"My sense of taste is better than your sense of taste." This is a wholly personal standard, an assumption that others are unable to share.

FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

The following questions can all be answered in competing ways. However, not all of them will lead to reasonable arguments. Try to decide which questions will lead to reasonable arguments and which will lead only to pseudo-arguments:

1. Is Spike Lee a good film director?
2. Are science fiction films better than westerns?
3. Should our city subsidize the development of a convention center?
4. Is this abstract oil painting by Bozo, the ape from the local zoo, a true work of art?
5. Is Danish Modern furniture attractive?
6. Is football a fun sport to play?
7. Does extrasensory perception (ESP) exist?
8. Which would look more attractive in this particular living room, Early American furniture or Danish Modern furniture?

9. Which are better, argumentation essays or short stories?
10. Which is better, Pete's argumentation essay or Jaynee's?

FRAME OF AN ARGUMENT: A CLAIM SUPPORTED BY REASONS

We have said earlier that an argument originates in an issue question, which by definition is any question that can be answered in two or more competing ways. When you write an argumentation essay, your task is to commit yourself to one of the answers and to support it with reasons and evidence. The claim of your essay is the position you are trying to defend. To put it another way, your position on the issue is your essay's thesis statement, a one-sentence summary answer to your issue question. Your task, then, is to make a claim and defend it with reasons.

What Is a Reason?

A reason (also called a premise) is a claim used to support another claim. In speaking or writing, a reason is usually linked to the claim with such connecting words as *because, since, for, so, thus, consequently, and therefore*, indicating that the claim follows logically from the reason.

Let's take an example. Suppose you were interested in the issue question "Are after-school jobs beneficial for teenagers?" Here are frameworks for two possible arguments on this issue:

PRO

Claim: Holding an after-school job can be beneficial for teenagers (aimed, say, at parents who forbid their teenager to get a job).

- REASON 1: An after-school job provides extra spending money.
- REASON 2: It develops responsibility.
- REASON 3: It teaches time management.
- REASON 4: It establishes a record of employment experience useful for later job hunting.

CON

Claim: An after-school job can often be harmful to teenagers (aimed, say, at teenagers seeking an after-school job).

- REASON 1: An after-school job takes time away from schoolwork, thus sacrificing long-range career success for short-range pocket money.
- REASON 2: It reduces opportunities for valuable social and recreational time during high school years.

REASON 3: Too often it encourages materialism and conspicuous consumption (if extra money is spent on cars, clothes, etc.).

Formulating a list of reasons in this way breaks your argumentative task into a series of smaller parts. It gives you a frame, in other words, on which to build your essay. The preceding “pro” argument could consist of four main parts. In the first part you would support the first reason—an after-school job provides extra spending money. You might give some examples and show how your making extra spending money would help out the family or improve the quality of your life. In each of the other parts you would proceed the same way, trying to convince the reader that each reason is both true and significant—in other words, you would try to show not only that it is true that a job teaches time management but also that learning time management is valuable. If your argument is to be persuasive to your intended audience, each reason should link your claim to an assumption or belief held by the audience.*

To summarize our point in this section, the frame of an argument consists of a claim (the thesis statement of the essay), which is supported by one or more reasons (other claims linked logically to the main claim), which are in turn supported by evidence or chains of further reasons.

Advantages of Expressing Reasons in “Because” Statements

Chances are that when you were a child the word *because* contained magical explanatory powers:

DOROTHY: I want to go home now.

TOMMY: Why?

DOROTHY: Because.

TOMMY: Because why?

DOROTHY: Just because.

Somehow *because* seemed decisive. It persuaded people to accept your view of the world; it changed people’s minds. Later, as you got older, you discovered that *because* only introduced your arguments and that it was the reasons following *because* that made the difference. Still, the word *because* introduced you to the powers potentially residing in the adult world of logic.

* The values appealed to in the pro argument are these: It is good to have extra spending money, to develop responsibility, to learn time management, and to have greater potential for job success. These values are likely to be granted by parents, who are the intended audience. What values are appealed to in the con argument? Are the intended readers in the con argument—teenagers—likely to share these values?

Of course, there are many additional ways to express the same connection between reasons and claim. Our language is rich in ways of stating “because” relationships:

- An after-school job is valuable for teenagers because it teaches time management.
- An after-school job teaches time management. Therefore, it is valuable for teenagers.
- An after-school job teaches time management, so it is valuable for teenagers.
- One reason after-school jobs are valuable for teenagers is that they teach time management.
- My argument favoring an after-school job for teenagers is based partly on the fact that such jobs teach time management.

Even though logical relationships can be stated in various ways, writing out one or more “because” clauses seems to be the most succinct and manageable way to clarify an argument for oneself. We therefore suggest that sometime in the writing process you create a “working thesis statement” that summarizes your main reasons as because clauses attached to your claim.* Just when you compose your own working thesis statement depends largely on your writing process. Some writers like to plan out their whole argument from the start and often compose their working thesis statements with because clauses before they write their rough drafts. Others discover their arguments as they write. And sometimes it is a combination of both. For these writers an extended working thesis statement is something they might write halfway through the composing process, as a way of ordering their argument when various branches seem to be growing out of control. Or they might compose a working thesis statement at the very end as a way of checking the unity of the final product.

Whenever you write your extended thesis statement, the act of doing so can be simultaneously frustrating and thought-provoking. Composing because clauses can be a powerful discovery tool, causing you to think of many different kinds of arguments to support your claim. But it is often difficult to wrestle your ideas into the because clause shape, which sometimes seems to be overly tidy for the complex network of ideas you are trying to

* The working thesis statement for the essay supporting after-school jobs would look like this: “Holding an after-school job can be beneficial for teenagers because it provides extra spending money, because it helps develop responsibility, because it helps teenagers learn time management, and because it helps them establish a record of employment experience useful for later job hunting.” You probably wouldn’t put such a statement into your essay itself; rather, it is a way of summarizing your argument for yourself so that you can see it whole and clear.

work with. Nevertheless, trying to summarize your argument as a single claim with reasons should help you see more clearly what you have to do.

FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

Try the following group exercise to help you see how writing because clauses can be a discovery procedure.

Divide into small groups. Each group member should contribute an issue that he or she might like to explore. Discussing one person's issue at a time, help each member write a working thesis statement by creating several because clauses in support of the person's claim. Then try to create because clauses in support of an opposing claim for each issue. Recorders should select two or three working thesis statements from the group to present to the class as a whole. Report in twenty-five minutes.

APPLICATION OF THIS CHAPTER'S PRINCIPLES TO YOUR OWN WRITING

In Chapter 2, during our discussion of summary writing, we mentioned that not all arguments are equally easy to summarize. Generally, an argument is easiest to summarize when the writer places her thesis or claim in the essay's introduction and highlights each reason with explicit transitions as the argument progresses. We say that such arguments have a "self-announcing structure," in that the essay announces its thesis (and sometimes its supporting reasons) and forecasts its shape before the body of the argument begins. Such arguments aim at maximum clarity for readers by focusing attention on the content and structure of the writer's ideas.

Arguments with self-announcing structures can be distinguished from those with "unfolding structures." An argument with an unfolding structure often delays its thesis until the end or entwines the argument into a personal narrative, story, or analysis without an explicitly argumentative shape. Often the reader must tease out the writer's thesis and supporting reasons, which remain implied only. Unfolding arguments are often stylistically complex and subtle.

The strategy for generating ideas set forth in this chapter—thinking of parallel because clauses and combining them into a working thesis statement that nutshells your argument—leads naturally to an argument with a self-announcing structure. Each because clause, together with its supporting evidence, becomes a separate building block of your argument. The building blocks, which can vary in length from a single paragraph to a whole series of paragraphs, are linked back to the thesis through appropriate transitions.

In our own classes we ask students early in the course to write arguments with self-announcing structures because such structures force writers to articulate their arguments clearly to themselves and because such structures

help students master the art of organizing for readers. Later on in the course we encourage students to experiment with structures that unfold their meanings rather than announce them in the introduction.

In writing self-announcing arguments, students often ask how much of the argument to summarize in the introduction. Consider the following options. Within the introduction you could choose to announce only your claim:

After-school jobs are beneficial for teenagers.

Or you could also predict a series of parallel reasons:

After-school jobs are beneficial for teenagers for several reasons.

Or you could forecast the actual number of reasons:

After-school jobs are beneficial for teenagers for four reasons.

Or you could forecast the whole argument:

After-school jobs are beneficial for teenagers because they provide extra spending money, because they help develop responsibility, because they help teenagers learn time management, and because they help teenagers establish a record of employment experience useful for later job hunting.

These, of course, are not your only options. If you choose to delay your thesis until the end (a simple kind of unfolding argument), you might place the issue-question in the introduction but not give away your own position:

Are after-school jobs beneficial for teenagers or not?

There are no hardbound rules to help you decide how much of your argument to forecast in the introduction. In Chapter 7 we discuss the different *ethos* projected when the writer places the claim in the introduction versus withholding it until later in the essay. It is clear at this point, though, that in making this decision a writer trades off clarity for surprise. The more you forecast, the clearer your argument is and the easier it is to read quickly. The less you forecast, the more surprising the argument is because the reader doesn't know what is coming. The only general rule is this: Readers sometimes feel insulted by too much forecasting. In writing a self-announcing argument, announce at the beginning only what is needed for clarity. In a short argument readers usually don't need all the because clauses stated explicitly in the introduction. In longer arguments, however, or in especially complex ones, readers appreciate having the whole argument forecast at the outset.

Of course, stating your reasons in because clauses is only one part of generating, organizing, and developing an argument. In the next chapter we will see how to support a reason by examining its logical structure, uncovering its unstated assumptions, and planning a strategy of development.

The Logical Structure of Arguments

In Chapter 4 you learned that the core of an argument is a claim supported by reasons and that these reasons can often be stated as because clauses attached to a claim. In the present chapter we examine the logical structure of arguments in more depth.

OVERVIEW TO LOGOS: WHAT DO WE MEAN BY THE "LOGICAL STRUCTURE" OF AN ARGUMENT?

As you will recall from our discussion of the rhetorical triangle, *logos* refers to the strength of an argument's support and its internal consistency. *Logos* is the argument's logical structure. But what do we mean by "logical structure"?

First of all, what we *don't* mean by logical structure is the kind of precise certainty you get in a philosophy class in formal logic. Logic classes deal with symbolic assertions that are universal and unchanging, such as "If all p 's are q 's and if r is a p , then r is a q ." This statement is logically certain so long as p , q , and r are pure abstractions. But in the real world, p , q , and r turn into actual things, and the relationships among them suddenly become fuzzy. For example, p might be a class of actions called "Sexual Harassment," while q could be the class of "Actions That Justify Dismissal from a Job." If r is the class "Telling Off-Color Stories," then the logic of our $p \rightarrow q \rightarrow r$ statement suggests that

telling off-color stories (r) is an instance of sexual harassment (p), which in turn is an action justifying dismissal from one's job (q).

Now, most of us would agree that sexual harassment is a serious offense that might well justify dismissal from a job. In turn, we might agree that telling off-color stories, if the jokes are sufficiently raunchy and are inflicted on an unwilling audience, constitutes sexual harassment. But few of us would want to say categorically that all people who tell off-color stories are harassing their listeners and ought to be fired. Most of us would want to know the particulars of the case before making a final judgment.

In the real world, then, it is difficult to say that p 's are always q 's or that every instance of a q results in an r . That is why we discourage students from using the word *prove* in claims they write for arguments (as in "This paper will prove that euthanasia is wrong"). Real-world arguments seldom *prove* anything. They can only make a good case for something, a case that is more or less strong, more or less probable. Often the best you can hope for is to strengthen the resolve of those who agree with you or weaken the resistance of those who oppose you. If your audience believes x and you are arguing for y , you cannot expect your audience suddenly, as the result of your argument, to start believing y . If your argument causes an audience to experience a flicker of doubt or an instant of open-mindedness, you've done well. So proofs and dramatic shifts in position are not what real-world arguments are about.

A key difference, then, between formal logic and real-world argument is that real-world arguments are not grounded in abstract, universal statements. Rather, as we shall see, they must be grounded in beliefs, assumptions, or values granted by the audience. A second important difference is that in real-world arguments these beliefs, assumptions, or values are often unstated. So long as writer and audience share the same assumptions, then it's fine to leave them unstated. But if these underlying assumptions aren't shared, the writer has a problem.

To illustrate the nature of this problem, consider the following argument.

After-school jobs are bad for teenagers because they take away study time.

On the face of it, this is a plausible argument. But the argument works only if we agree with the writer's assumption that loss of study time is bad. Suppose that we were skeptical of this assumption and believed that time spent on a job might be more valuable in the long run than time spent studying. Suppose we believed that a high school job teaches kids good work habits, gives them marketable skills, creates

contacts and sources for future job references, and so forth. Thus we might believe that developing a good work reputation might lead to greater career success than getting higher grades through more studying. To succeed with the “loss of study time” reason, the writer would then have to create an explicit argument for the value of study time instead of leaving this crucial part of the argument unstated and undeveloped.

The Greek philosopher Aristotle would have called the preceding core argument (“After-school jobs are bad for teenagers because they take away study time”) an *enthymeme*. An enthymeme is an incomplete logical structure that depends, for its completeness, on one or more unstated assumptions (values, beliefs, principles) that serve as the starting point of the argument. The successful arguer, said Aristotle, is the person who knows how to formulate and develop enthymemes so that the argument hooks into the audience’s values and beliefs.

To clarify the concept of “enthymeme,” let’s go over this same territory again more slowly, examining what we mean by “incomplete logical structure.” The sentence “After-school jobs are bad for teenagers because they take away study time” is an enthymeme. It combines a claim (“After-school jobs are bad for teenagers”) with a reason expressed as a because clause (“because they take away study time”). To render this enthymeme logically complete, one must supply an unstated assumption—“loss of study time is bad for teenagers.”* If your audience accepts this assumption, then you have a starting place on which to build an effective argument. If your audience doesn’t accept this assumption, then you must supply another argument to support it, and so on until you find common ground with your audience.

To sum up:

1. Claims are supported with reasons. You can usually state a reason as a because clause attached to a claim (see Chapter 4).
2. A because clause attached to a claim is an incomplete logical structure called an enthymeme. To create a complete logical structure from an enthymeme, the unstated assumption (or assumptions) must be articulated.
3. To serve as an effective starting point for the argument, this unstated assumption should be a belief, value, or principle that the audience grants.

Let’s illustrate this structure by putting the previous example—plus two new ones—into schematic form.

INITIAL ENTHYMEME:	After-school jobs are bad for teenagers because they take away study time.
CLAIM:	After-school jobs are bad for teenagers.
STATED REASON:	because they take away study time

* Later in this chapter we use the term *warrant* as the technical name for these often unstated assumptions, values, or beliefs that underlie your argument.

UNSTATED ASSUMPTION:	Loss of study time is bad.
INITIAL ENTHYMEME:	After-school jobs are good for teenagers because they teach responsibility and time management.
CLAIM:	After-school jobs are good for teenagers.
STATED REASON:	because they teach responsibility and time management
UNSTATED ASSUMPTION:	Activities that teach responsibility and time management are good.
INITIAL ENTHYMEME:	Cocaine and heroin should be legalized because legalization would eliminate the black market in drugs.
CLAIM:	Cocaine and heroin should be legalized.
STATED REASON:	because legalization would eliminate the black market in drugs
UNSTATED ASSUMPTION:	An action that eliminates the black market in drugs is good. (Or, to state the assumption more fully, the benefits to society of eliminating the black market in drugs outweigh the negative effects to society of legalizing drugs.)

FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

Working individually or in small groups, identify the claim, stated reason, and unstated assumption that completes each of the following enthymemic arguments.

EXAMPLE

Rabbits make good pets because they are gentle.

CLAIM:	Rabbits make good pets.
STATED REASON:	because they are gentle
UNSTATED ASSUMPTION:	Gentle animals make good pets.

1. Joe is a bad leader because he is too bossy.
2. Buy this stereo system because it has a powerful amplifier.
3. Drugs should not be legalized because legalization would greatly increase the number of drug addicts.
4. Practicing the piano is good for kids because it teaches discipline.
5. Welfare benefits for unwed mothers should be eliminated because doing so will greatly reduce the nation’s illegitimacy rate.
6. Welfare benefits for unwed mothers should not be eliminated because these benefits are needed to prevent unbearable poverty among our nation’s most helpless citizens.
7. We should strengthen the Endangered Species Act because doing so will preserve genetic diversity on the planet.
8. The Endangered Species Act is too stringent because it severely damages the economy.

9. Bill Jones is a great leader because he is open-minded yet decisive.
10. Abortion should be legal because a woman has the right to control her own body. (This enthymeme has several unstated assumptions behind it; see if you can recreate all the missing premises.)

ADOPTING A LANGUAGE FOR DESCRIBING ARGUMENTS: THE TOULMIN SYSTEM

Understanding a new field usually requires us to learn a new vocabulary. For example, if you were taking biology for the first time, you'd spend days memorizing dozens and dozens of new terms. Luckily, the field of argument requires us to learn a mere handful of new terms. A particularly useful set of argument terms, one we'll be using throughout the rest of this text, comes from philosopher Stephen Toulmin. In the 1950s, Toulmin rejected the prevailing models of argument based on formal logic in favor of a very audience-based courtroom model.

Toulmin's courtroom model differs from formal logic in that it assumes (1) that all assertions and assumptions are contestable by "opposing counsel," and (2) that all final "verdicts" about the persuasiveness of the opposing arguments will be rendered by a neutral third party, a judge or jury. Keeping in mind the "opposing counsel" forces us to anticipate counterarguments and to question our assumptions; keeping in mind the judge and jury reminds us to answer opposing arguments fully, without rancor, and to present positive reasons for supporting our case as well as negative reasons for disbelieving the opposing case. Above all else, Toulmin's model reminds us not to construct an argument that appeals only to those who already agree with us.

The system we use for analyzing arguments combines Toulmin's system with Aristotle's concept of the enthymeme. The purpose of this system is to provide writers with an economical language for articulating the structure of argument and, in the process, to help them anticipate their audience's needs. More particularly, it helps writers see enthymemes—in the form of a claim with because clauses—as the core of their argument, and the other structural elements from Toulmin as strategies for elaborating and supporting that core.

This system builds on the one you have already been practicing. We simply need to add a few more key terms from Toulmin. The first key term is Toulmin's *warrant*, the name we will now use for the unstated assumption that turns an enthymeme into a complete logical structure. For example:

INITIAL ENTHYMEME: After-school jobs are bad for teenagers because they take away study time.

CLAIM: After-school jobs are bad for teenagers.

STATED REASON: because they take away study time

WARRANT: Loss of study time is bad.

INITIAL ENTHYMEME: Cocaine and heroin should be legalized because legalization would eliminate the black market in drugs.

CLAIM: Cocaine and heroin should be legalized.

STATED REASON: because legalization would eliminate the black market in drugs

WARRANT: An action that eliminates the black market in drugs is good.

Toulmin derives his term *warrant* from the concept of "warranty" or "guarantee." The warrant is the value, belief, or principle that the audience has to hold if the soundness of the argument is to be guaranteed or warranted. We sometimes make similar use of this word in ordinary language when we say "That is an unwarranted conclusion," meaning one has leapt from information about a situation to a conclusion about that situation without any sort of general principle to justify or "warrant" that move. Thus if we claim that cocaine and heroin ought to be legalized because legalization would end the black market, we must be able to cite a general principle or belief that links our prediction that legalization would end the black market to our claim that legalization ought to occur. In this case the warrant is the statement, "An action that eliminates the black market for drugs is good." It is this underlying belief that warrants or guarantees the argument. Just as automobile manufacturers must provide warranties for their cars if they want skeptical customers to buy them, we must provide warrants linking our reasons to our claims if we expect skeptical audiences to "buy" our arguments.

But arguments need more than claims, reasons, and warrants. These are simply one-sentence statements—the frame of an argument, not a developed argument. To flesh out our arguments and make them convincing we need what Toulmin calls *grounds* and *backing*. Grounds are the supporting evidence—facts, data, statistics, testimony, or examples—that cause you to make a claim in the first place or that you produce to justify a claim in response to audience skepticism. Toulmin suggests that grounds are "what you have to go on" in an argument. In short, they are collectively all the evidence you use to support a reason. It sometimes helps to think of grounds as the answer to a "How do you know that . . . ?" question preceding a reason. (How do you know that after-school jobs take away study time? How do you know that legalizing drugs will end the black market?) Here is how grounds fit into our emerging argument schema.

CLAIM: After-school jobs are bad for teenagers.

STATED REASON: because they take away study time

GROUND: data and evidence showing that after-school jobs take away study time (examples of teenagers who work late and don't study, statistics showing that teenagers with jobs study less than those without jobs, testimony from teachers that working teenagers study less than those without jobs, etc.)

CLAIM: Cocaine and heroin should be legalized.

STATED REASON: because legalization would eliminate the black market in drugs

GROUND: data and evidence showing how legalizing cocaine and heroin would eliminate the black market (statistics, data, and examples)

describing the size and effect of current black market, followed by arguments showing how selling cocaine and heroin legally in state-controlled stores would lower the price and eliminate the need to buy them from drug dealers)

In many cases, successful arguments require just these three components: a claim, a reason, and grounds. If the audience already accepts the unstated assumption behind the reason (the warrant), then the warrant can safely remain in the background unstated and unexamined. But if there is a chance that the audience will question or doubt the warrant, then the writer needs to back it up by providing an argument in its support. *Backing* is the argument that supports the warrant. Backing answers the question, "How do you know that . . . ?" or "Why do you believe that . . . ?" prefixed to the warrant. (Why do you believe that loss of study time is bad? Why do you believe that the benefits of ending the black market outweigh the costs of legalizing cocaine and heroin?) Here is how *backing* is added to our schema.

WARRANT:	Loss of study time is bad.
BACKING:	argument showing why loss of study time is bad (it leads to poor grades, to inadequate preparation for college, to less enjoyment of school, to lower self-image as a student, etc.)
WARRANT:	An action that eliminates the black market in drugs is good.
BACKING:	an argument supporting the warrant by showing why eliminating the black market in drugs is good (statistics and examples about the ill effects of the black market, data on crime and profiteering, evidence that huge profits make drug dealing more attractive than ordinary jobs, the high cost of crime created by the black market, the cost to taxpayers of waging the war against drugs, the high cost of prisons to house incarcerated drug dealers, etc.)

Finally, Toulmin's system asks us to imagine how a shrewd adversary would try to refute our argument. Specifically, the adversary might attack our reason and grounds by showing how an after-school job does *not* lead to loss of study time or how legalizing drugs would *not* end the black market. Or the adversary might attack our warrant and backing by showing how loss of study time may not be bad or how the negative consequences of legalizing drugs might outweigh the benefit of ending the black market.

In the case of the after-school job debate, an adversary might offer one or both of the following rebuttals:

CONDITIONS OF REBUTTAL:	<i>Rebutting the reason and grounds:</i> evidence of teenagers who combine work with good study habits; argument showing that having a job can teach time management, which leads in turn to an increase in studying.
	<i>Rebutting the warrant and backing:</i> argument showing that advantages of holding a job may outweigh disadvantages of reduced study time;

argument showing that job experience and achieving a track record as a good worker may be more highly valued by employers than GPA.

If either of these rebuttals seems valid, the author of an argument critical of after-school jobs must build a response into her argument. To help writers imagine such responses, conditions of rebuttal are often stated as conditionals using the word *unless*, such as "After school jobs take away study time *unless* it turns out that holding a job may teach teenagers to use time more efficiently and to study more effectively." Conditions of rebuttal name the exceptions to the rule, the circumstances under which your reason or warrant might not hold. Stated in this manner, the conditions of rebuttal for the legalization-of-drugs argument might look like this:

CONDITIONS OF REBUTTAL:

Rebutting the reason and grounds: Ending the black market is good unless taxes on legal drugs would keep the price high enough that a black market would still exist; unless new kinds of illegal designer drugs would be developed and sold on the black market.

Rebutting the warrant and backing: Ending the black market is good unless the increased numbers of drug users and addicts were unacceptably high; unless harmful changes in social structure due to acceptance of drugs were too severe; unless the health and economic consequences of increased number of drug users were catastrophic; unless social costs to families and communities associated with addiction or erratic behavior during drug-induced "highs" were too great.

Toulmin's final term, used to limit the force of a claim and indicate the degree of its probable truth, is *qualifier*. The qualifier reminds us that real-world arguments almost never prove a claim. We may say things like "very likely," "probably," or "maybe" to indicate the strength of the claim we are willing to draw from our grounds and warrant. Thus if there are exceptions to your warrant or if your grounds are not very strong, you will have to qualify your claim. For example, you might say "Holding an after-school job is a bad idea for many teenagers" or "With full awareness of the potential dangers, I suggest we consider the option of legalizing drugs as a way of ending the ill effects of the black market." Placed in our schema, the qualifier might be stated this way:

CLAIM:	After-school jobs are bad for teenagers.
QUALIFIER:	in many cases; for many teenagers
CLAIM:	Cocaine and heroin should be legalized.
QUALIFIER:	perhaps, tentatively

Although the system just described might at first seem complicated, it is actually fairly easy to use after you've had some opportunity to practice. The following chart will help you review the terms.

ORIGINAL ENTHYMEME: your claim with because clause

CLAIM: The point or position you are trying to get your audience to accept

STATED REASON: your because clause;* your reasons are the subordinate claims you make in support of your main claim

GROUND(S): the evidence (data, facts, testimony, statistics, examples) supporting your stated reason

WARRANT: the originally unstated assumption behind your enthymeme, the statement of belief, value, principle, and so on, that, when accepted by an audience, warrants or underwrites your argument

BACKING: evidence or other argumentation supporting the warrant. (If the audience already accepts the warrant, then backing is usually not needed. But if the audience doubts the warrant, then backing is essential.)

QUALIFIER: words or phrases limiting the force of your claim

CONDITIONS OF REBUTTAL: your acknowledgement of the limits of your claim—those conditions under which it does not hold true, in anticipation of an adversary's counterargument, against your reason and grounds or against your warrant and backing

To help you practice using these terms, here are two more examples, displayed this time so that the conditions of rebuttal are set in an opposing column next to the reason/grounds and the warrant/backing.

ORIGINAL ENTHYMEME: The Mustangs will win the football championship because they have the best running backs in the league.

CLAIM: The Mustangs will win the football championship.

STATED REASON: because they have the best running backs in the league

CONDITIONS OF REBUTTAL: *Rebuttal of reason and grounds:* unless the Mustangs don't have the best running backs in the league (evidence that the running backs are not as strong as those of several other teams; data showing weaknesses in the running backs—propensity

GROUND(S): physical description of the excellence of the running backs, statistics on their accomplishments, comparative data showing that no other team in the league has running backs of this quality

WARRANT: The team with the best running backs will win the football championship.

BACKING: argument showing the value of running backs to a winning team; statistics linking strong running backs to wins in this league

QUALIFIER: probably

to fumble, inability to read unexpected defenses, etc.)

Rebuttal of warrant and backing: unless other teams alter their defenses to protect against the run, unless passing teams win more games than running teams, unless the Mustangs have serious weaknesses in defense, etc. (evidence that different defenses are more effective against the run; evidence that passing teams outscore running teams; evidence that the Mustangs have a weak defense and don't have a strong enough passing attack to keep opponents from concentrating on rush defense)

ORIGINAL ENTHYMEME: The exclusionary rule is a bad law because it allows drug dealers to escape prosecution.*

CLAIM: The exclusionary rule is a bad law.

STATED REASON: because it allows drug dealers to escape prosecution

GROUND(S): numerous cases wherein the exclusionary rule prevented police from presenting evidence in court; examples of nitpicking rules and regulations that allowed drug dealers to go free; testimony from prosecutors and police about how the exclusionary rule hampers their effectiveness

WARRANT: It is beneficial to our country to prosecute drug dealers.

BACKING: arguments showing the extent and danger of the drug problem; arguments showing that prosecuting and imprisoning drug dealers will reduce the drug problem

QUALIFIER: perhaps, tentatively

CONDITIONS OF REBUTTAL: *Rebuttal of reason and grounds:* unless the exclusionary rule does not allow many drug dealers to escape prosecution (counterevidence showing numerous times when police and prosecutors followed the exclusionary rule and still obtained convictions; statistical analysis showing that the percentage of cases in which exclusionary rule threw evidence out of court is very low)

Rebuttal of warrant and backing: unless reversing exclusionary rule would have serious costs that outweigh benefits; unless greatly increasing the pursuit and prosecution of drug dealers would have serious costs (arguments showing that the value of protecting individual liberties outweighs the value of prosecuting drug dealers; statistical evidence showing that the expense of building more prisons and incarcerating drug dealers is prohibitive; arguments showing that the high social cost of diverting police attention from other crimes in order to track drug dealers harms society)

* Most arguments have more than one because clause or reason in support of your claim. Each enthymeme thus develops only one line of reasoning, one piece of your whole argument.

* The exclusionary rule is a court-mandated set of regulations specifying when evidence can and cannot be introduced into a trial. It excludes all evidence that police obtain through irregular means. In actual practice, it demands that police follow strict procedures. Opponents of the exclusionary rule claim that its "narrow technicalities" handcuff police.

FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

Working individually or in small groups, imagine that you have to write arguments developing the ten enthymemes listed in the For Class Discussion exercise on pages 101-102. Use the Toulmin schema to help you determine what you need to consider when developing each enthymeme. As an example, we have applied the Toulmin schema to the first enthymeme.

ORIGINAL ENTHYMEME: Joe is a bad leader because he is too bossy.

CLAIM: Joe is a bad leader.

STATED REASON: because he is too bossy

GROUNDINGS: various examples of Joe's bossiness; testimony about his bossiness from people who have worked with him

WARRANT: Bossy people make bad leaders.

BACKING: arguments showing that other things being equal, bossy people tend to bring out the worst rather than the best in those around them; bossy people tend not to ask advice, make bad decisions; etc.

QUALIFIER: In most circumstances, he isn't a good leader. Many people think he isn't a good leader.

CONDITIONS OF REBUTTAL: *Rebuttal of reason and grounds:* unless Joe isn't really bossy (counterevidence of Joe's cooperativeness and kindness; testimony that Joe is easy to work with; etc.)

Rebuttal of the warrant and backing: unless bossy people sometimes make good leaders (arguments showing that at times a group needs a bossy person who can make decisions and get things done); unless Joe has other traits of good leadership that outweigh his bossiness (evidence that, despite his bossiness, Joe has many other good leadership traits such as high energy, intelligence, charisma, etc.)

USING TOULMIN'S SCHEMA TO DETERMINE A STRATEGY OF SUPPORT

Having introduced you to Toulmin's terminology for describing the logical structure of arguments, we can turn directly to a discussion of how to use these concepts for developing your own arguments. Let's imagine, for example, that you wanted to defend the following enthymemic argument put forth by the woman president of a major corporation:

Women often make better managers than men because they are more people-conscious. They are better listeners and more aware of other people's feelings. They like to find out where people are coming from.

Figure 5-1 shows how one student used the Toulmin schema to examine this enthymeme. The warrant behind this argument is that persons who are "people-conscious" are better managers than those who aren't. In examining the stated reason and the warrant, the writer can see that the argument must be supported in two parts: The writer will have to show that women are more people-conscious than men (this is the original stated reason, the because clause); the writer will also have to show that being people-conscious is the key to being a good manager (this is the unstated warrant or major

premise). For this particular argument, supporting the warrant with backing might be even more crucial than supporting the stated reason.

As Figure 5-1 shows, the writer complicated her sense of the issue by also considering Toulmin's conditions of rebuttal. In considering how her stated reason might be rebutted, the writer discovers that she has to define *people-consciousness* clearly and then find some way to demonstrate that women are more people-conscious than men. The writer decides to qualify the argument by saying "women are frequently more people-conscious than men"; this qualification helps defend the argument against the exceptions that a skeptical audience might raise. The writer also sees that she should explain what traits or actions characterize a "people-conscious" manager. Then, in order to support the stated reason that women are frequently more people-conscious than men, the writer can look for research studies that might support the claim, think of persuasive representative examples from personal experience, or develop a causal argument based on women's being

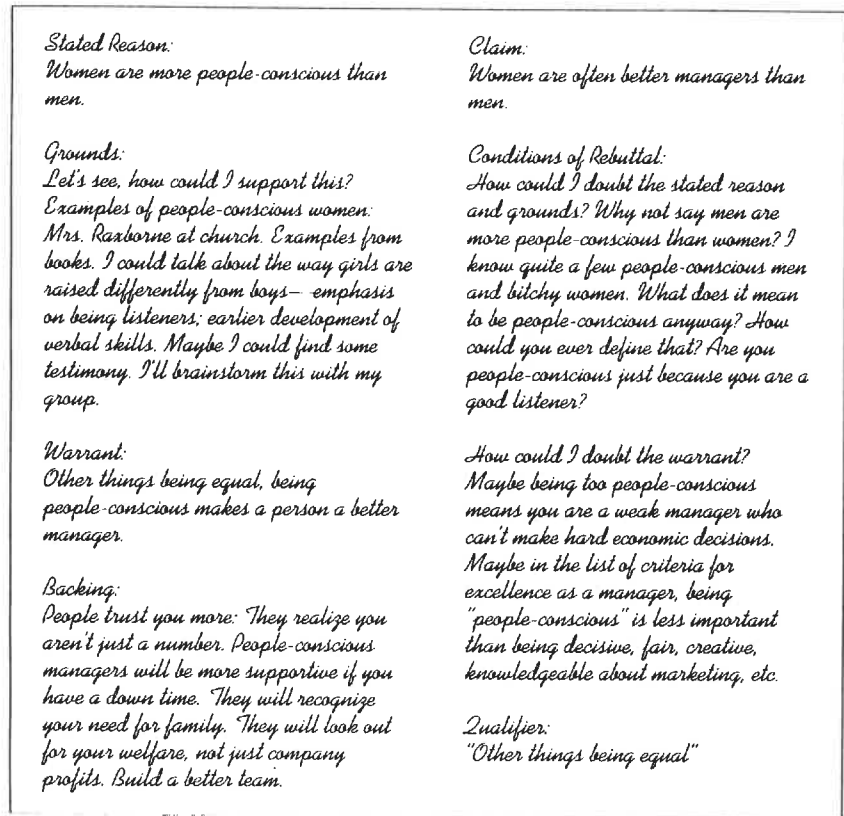


FIGURE 5-1 Toulmin schema of argument about women managers

socialized as nurturers, and so forth. These supporting examples and arguments would become the grounds for the stated reason.

Similarly, considering conditions for rebuttal helps the writer see how to qualify the warrant—what to concede to the opposition and what to support. Rather than make the sweeping generalization that people-consciousness is an essential aspect of good management, the writer might argue more narrowly that people-conscious managers build trust and cooperation in an organization. Once again, the writer may uncover some data about the effectiveness of different management styles or bring in personal examples from job experience. In sum, the purpose of brainstorming for opposing views under “Conditions for rebuttal” is to sharpen your sense of the potential strengths and weaknesses of your argument.

CREATING SUPPORT: USING EVIDENCE/CHAINS OF REASONS FOR GROUNDS AND BACKING

The majority of words in any argument are devoted to grounds and backing—the supporting sections that develop the argument frame, consisting of a claim, reasons, and warrants. Generally these supporting sections take one of two forms: either (1) *evidence* such as facts, examples, case studies, statistics, testimony from experts, and so forth; or (2) a *chain of reasons*—that is, further conceptual argument. Let’s look at each kind of support separately.

Evidence as Support

It’s often easier for writers to use evidence rather than chains of reasons for support because using evidence entails moving from generalizations to specific details—a basic organizational strategy that most writers practice regularly. Consider the following hypothetical case. A student, Ramona, wants to write a complaint letter to the head of the Philosophy Department about a philosophy professor, Dr. Choplogic, whom Ramona considers incompetent. Ramona plans to develop two different lines of reasoning: first, that Choplogic’s courses are disorganized and, second, that Choplogic is unconcerned about students.

Let’s look briefly at how she can develop her first main line of reasoning, which is based on the following enthymeme:

Dr. Choplogic is an ineffective teacher because his courses are disorganized.

The grounds for this argument will be all the evidence she can muster showing that Choplogic’s courses are disorganized. Figure 5-2 shows Ramona’s initial brainstorming notes based on the Toulmin schema. The information Ramona lists under “grounds” is what she sees as the facts of the case—the hard data she will use as evidence to support her reason. Here is how this argument might look when placed into written form:

Claim: Dr. Choplogic is an ineffective teacher.
Stated reason: because his courses are disorganized
Grounds: What evidence is there that his courses are disorganized?
—no syllabus in either Intro or Ethics
—never announced how many papers we would have
—didn’t know what would be on tests
—didn’t like the textbook he had chosen; gave us different terms
—didn’t follow any logical sequence in his lectures

FIGURE 5-2 Ramona’s initial planning notes

One reason that Dr. Choplogic is ineffective is that his courses are poorly organized. I have had him for two courses—Introduction to Philosophy and Ethics—and both were disorganized. He never gave us a syllabus or explained his grading system. At the beginning of the course he wouldn’t tell us how many papers he would require, and he never seemed to know how much of the textbook material he planned to cover. For Intro he told us to read the whole text, but he covered only half of it in class. A week before the final I asked him how much of the text would be on the exam and he said he hadn’t decided. The Ethics class was even more disorganized. Dr. Choplogic told us to read the text, which provided one set of terms for ethical arguments, and then he told us he didn’t like the text and presented us in lecture with a wholly different set of terms. The result was a whole class of confused, angry students.

Claim and reason

Grounds
(evidence in support of reason)

As you can see, Ramona has plenty of evidence to support her contention that Choplogic is disorganized. But how effective is this argument as it stands? Is this all she needs? The Toulmin schema also encourages Ramona to examine the warrant, backing, and conditions of rebuttal for this argument. Figure 5-3 shows how her planning notes continue.

This section of her planning notes helps her see her argument more fully from the audience’s perspective. She believes that no one can challenge her reason and grounds—Choplogic is indeed a disorganized teacher. But she recognizes that some people might challenge her warrant (“Disorganized teachers are ineffective”). An adversary might say that some teachers, even though they are hopelessly disorganized, might nevertheless do an excellent job of stimulating thought and discussion. Moreover, such teachers might possess other valuable traits that outweigh their disorganization. Ramona therefore decides to address these concerns by adding another section to this portion of her argument.

<i>Claim:</i> Dr. Choplogic is an ineffective teacher.	<i>Conditions of rebuttal:</i> Would anybody doubt my reasons and grounds?
<i>Stated reason:</i> because his courses are disorganized	No. Every student I have ever talked to agrees that these are the facts about Choplogic's courses. Everyone agrees that he is disorganized. Of course, the department chair might not know this, so I will have to provide evidence.
<i>Grounds:</i> What evidence is there that his courses are disorganized?	<i>Would anybody doubt my warrant and backing? Maybe they would.</i>
—no syllabus in either Intro or Ethics	Is it possible that in some cases disorganized teachers are good teachers? Have I ever had a disorganized teacher who was good? My freshman sociology teacher was disorganized, but she really made you think. You never knew where the course was going but we had some great discussions. Choplogic isn't like that. He isn't using classtime to get us involved in philosophic thinking or discussions.
—never announced how many papers we would have	—Is it possible that Choplogic has other good traits that outweigh his disorganization? I don't think he does, but I will have to make a case for this.
—didn't know what would be on tests	
—didn't like the textbook he had chosen; gave us different terms	
—didn't follow any logical sequence in his lectures	
<i>Warrant:</i> Disorganized teachers are ineffective.	
<i>Backing:</i>	
—organization helps you learn	
—gets material organized in a logical way	
—helps you know what to study	
—helps you take notes and relate one part of course to another	
—when teacher is disorganized you think he hasn't prepared for class; makes you lose confidence	

FIGURE 5-3 Ramona's planning notes continued

Dr. Choplogic's lack of organization makes it difficult for students to take notes, to know what to study, or to relate one part of the course to another. Moreover, students lose confidence in the teacher because he doesn't seem to care enough to prepare for class.

In Dr. Choplogic's defense, it might be thought that his primary concern is involving students in class discussions or other activities to teach us thinking skills or get us involved in philosophical discussions. But this isn't the case. Students rarely get a chance to speak in class. We just sit there listening to rambling, disorganized lectures.

Backing for warrant (shows why disorganization is bad)

Response to conditions of rebuttal

As the marginal notations show, this section of her argument backs the warrant that disorganized teachers are ineffective and anticipates some of the conditions for rebuttal that an audience might raise to defend Dr. Choplogic. Throughout her draft, Ramona has supported her argument with effective use of evidence. The Toulmin schema has shown her that she needed evidence primarily to support her stated reason ("Choplogic is disorganized"). But she also needed some evidence to support her warrant ("Disorganization is bad") and to respond to possible conditions of rebuttal ("Perhaps Choplogic is teaching thinking skills").

In general, the evidence you use for support can come either from your own personal experiences and observations or from reading and research. Although many arguments depend on your skill at research, many can be supported wholly or in part from your own personal experiences, so don't neglect the wealth of evidence from your own life when searching for data. Chapter 6 is devoted to a more detailed discussion of evidence in arguments.

When evidence is incorporated into your essays, it can take several different forms. In the previous example of Ramona's complaint against Dr. Choplogic, it took the form of a series of relevant facts. Other common forms of evidence include examples, statistics, and testimony. Let's look at each in turn.

Examples

A great number of arguments can be supported by examples. If you want to argue that Joe is a bad leader because he is bossy, you could use some examples of his bossiness as grounds for your argument. Similarly, you might use the example of your grandparents to argue that welfare reforms have caused new hardships to the elderly in your community. The following quotation illustrates how one writer used examples to support his claim that the city of Seattle needs a stronger antidiscrimination law. His main argument is that current laws are not preventing discrimination, an argument he supports by piling up eight different examples (we quote only his first two examples as illustration of the strategy):

If you don't think such an ordinance is necessary, possibly the following incidents will convince you:

—Christmas Eve 1983—Sewage began to back up at the residence of Steve Reiswig and Ray Woods. Because they couldn't find their landlord, they dialed 911 to contact the Seattle Fire Department for assistance. They say a member of the department answered and replied to their request, "You guys have hepatitis and AIDS," and refused assistance.

—January 1984—The owner of a downtown tavern placed a large hand-lettered sign in the window that said, "Cubans Keep Out." [Six more examples follow.]*

* From Steven L. Kendall, "Why We Need New Anti-Discrimination Law," *Seattle Times* 12 Sept. 1987: A11.

Statistics

Another common form of evidence is statistics. Since statistical data pose tricky problems in arguments—some people claim you can prove almost anything with statistics—we have devoted a special section of this text to arguing with numbers (Appendix 2). Here is how the writer of a *Newsweek* article used statistical data to argue that the use of fluorocarbons is harming the earth's ozone layer:

The ozone layer also blocks out harmful ultraviolet light, which causes skin cancer and other damage. The U.S. Environmental Protection Agency claims that a loss of 2.5 percent of the ozone layer would lead to 15,000 additional victims of the deadliest forms of skin cancer per year. Additionally, UV light kills plankton, a major food source for much of the ocean's fish, as well as the larva of some kinds of fish. A 20 percent increase in UV light, for example, could destroy 5 percent of the ocean's anchovy larvae, which is a major source of animal feed worldwide.*

Testimony

Finally, much evidence comes in the form of testimony, whereby you cite an expert to help bolster your case. Testimony is often blended with other kinds of evidence, as in the above example where the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency is cited as the source of the skin cancer statistics. Citing authorities is particularly common in those arguments where lay persons cannot be expected to be experts—the technical feasibility of cold fusion, the effects of alcohol on fetal tissue development, and so forth. Often, a noteworthy quotation from an expert will have considerable persuasive power. The author of the *Newsweek* article from which we drew our previous example used such a quotation as the thesis statement of her essay:

But the world may no longer have the luxury of further study. As Senator John Chafee put it last week, at a hearing of his Subcommittee on Environmental Pollution, "There is a very real possibility that man—through ignorance or indifference or both—is irreversibly altering the ability of our atmosphere to [support] life."

Later in the article, more authorities are cited:

This greenhouse effect, according to a parade of witnesses at last week's hearings, is no longer a matter of scientific debate, but a frightening reality. "Global warming is inevitable—it's only a question of magnitude and time," concluded Robert Watson of the National Aeronautics and Space Administration, the agency whose satellites monitor the upper atmosphere.

Chain of Reasons as Support

So far we have been discussing how to support reasons with evidence. Many reasons, however, cannot be supported this way; rather, they must be

* The information on fluorocarbons in this and the following examples is based on Sharon Begley, "Silent Summer: Ozone Loss and Global Warming," *Newsweek* 23 June 1986: 64–66.

supported with a chain of other reasons. Such passages are often more difficult to write. Let's take as an example a student who wants to argue that the state should require the wearing of seatbelts. His claim, along with his main supporting reason, is as follows:

The state should require the wearing of seatbelts in moving vehicles because seatbelts save lives.

In planning out the argument, the writer determines the unstated warrant, which in this case is that the state should enact any law that would save lives. The writer's argument thus looks like this:

CLAIM: The state should enact a mandatory seatbelt law.

STATED REASON: Such a law will save lives.

WARRANT: Laws that save lives should be enacted by the state.

The writer's next step is to consider the conditions for rebuttal for these premises. He realizes that he will have no trouble supporting the stated reason ("Seatbelts save lives") since he can use evidence in the form of examples, statistics, and testimony. But the warrant of the argument ("Laws that save lives should be enacted by the state") cannot be defended by an appeal to such data. Although this statement operates as a warrant in the original seatbelt argument, it is actually a new claim that must itself be supported by additional reasons. As this example illustrates, a statement serving as a reason in one argument can become a claim in another, setting off a potentially infinite regress of reasons.

Examining the conditions for rebuttal reveals to the writer how vulnerable the warrant is. If the state is supposed to enact any law that saves lives, should it then pass laws requiring you to take your vitamins, get your blood pressure checked, or put safety strips in your bathtub? How could the writer argue that the state has the right to require seatbelts without opening the way for dozens of other do-gooder laws? Unable to use evidence, the writer proceeded to think of chains of reasons that might add up to a convincing case.

The seatbelt law differs from other do-gooder laws:

- Because it mandates behavior only on public property.
- Because it concerns highway safety, and the state is clearly responsible for public highways.
- Because the connection between wearing seatbelts and safety is immediately clear.
- Because it is similar to already established laws requiring the wearing of motorcycle helmets.
- Because the law is easy to follow, is minimally disruptive, and costs relatively little so that the benefits outweigh the disadvantages.

Each of these arguments distinguishes seatbelt legislation from other, less acceptable laws government might enact in the name of citizen safety, and they thus become ways of qualifying the warrant that the state should enact *all* laws that save lives. Together they constitute some reasons for supporting seatbelt legislation and for arguing that such legislation is not an unreasonable infringement of citizens' rights.

Having worked out these differences between seatbelt laws and other do-gooder laws, the writer is ready to draft the argument in essay form. Here is a portion of the writer's essay, picking up his argument after he has shown that seatbelts do indeed save lives:

But just because seatbelts save lives does not necessarily mean that the state has the right to make us wear them. Certainly we don't want the state to make us put non-slip safety strips in our bathtubs, to require annual blood-pressure checks, or to outlaw cigarettes, alcohol, and sugar. But seatbelt regulation governs our behavior on public roadways, not in the privacy of our homes, and the government is obviously responsible for making the highways as safe as possible. After all, we can sue the government for negligence if it disregards safety in highway construction. Forcing motor vehicle passengers to wear seatbelts can thus be seen as part of their general program to make the highways safe. Moreover, the use of seatbelts constitutes a minimal restriction of personal freedom. Seatbelts are already standard equipment in cars, it costs us nothing to wear them, and they are now designed for maximum comfort.

There are also a number of precedents for seatbelt legislation. Indeed, there are already government regulations requiring the installation of seatbelts in cars. To require their installation but not their use is silly. It is to require people to be potentially, but not actually, safe. In addition, a number of states, following the same sort of rationale as the one I've followed above, require motorcyclists to wear helmets. Such helmets are often costly and uncomfortable and, according to some cyclists, hurt the biker's image. But because they protect lives and save millions of dollars in insurance and hospital costs, such objections have been overridden.

As you can tell, this section is considerably more complex than one that simply cites data as evidence in support of a reason. Here the writer must use an interlocking chain of other reasons, showing all the ways that a seatbelt law is different from a safety-strip-in-the-bathtub law. Certainly it's not a definitive argument, but it is considerably more compelling than saying that the state should pass any law that protects lives. Although chains of reasons are harder to construct than bodies of evidence, many arguments will require them.

CONCLUSION

Chapters 4 and 5 have provided an anatomy of argument. They have shown that the core of an argument is a claim with reasons that usually can be summarized in one or more because clauses attached to the claim. Often, it is as important to support the unstated premises in your argument as it is

to support the stated ones. In order to plan out an argument strategy, arguers can use the Toulmin schema, which helps writers discover grounds, warrants, and backings for their arguments and to test them through conditions for rebuttal. Finally, we saw how stated reasons and warrants are supported through the use of evidence or chains of other reasons. In the next chapter we will look more closely at the uses of evidence in argumentation.

FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. Working individually or in small groups, consider ways you could use evidence from personal experience to support the stated reason in each of the following partial arguments:
 - a. Another reason to oppose a state sales tax is that it is so annoying.
 - b. Professor X should be rated down on his (her) teaching because he (she) doesn't design homework effectively to promote real learning.
 - c. Professor X is an outstanding teacher because he (she) generously spends so much time outside of class counseling students with personal problems.
2. Now try to create a chain-of-reasons argument to support the warrants in each of the above partial arguments. The warrants for each of the arguments are stated below.
 - a. Support this warrant: We should oppose taxes that are annoying.
 - b. Support this warrant: The effective design of homework to promote real learning is an important criterion for rating teachers.
 - c. Support this warrant: Time spent counseling students with personal problems is an important criterion for rating teachers.
3. Using Toulmin's conditions of rebuttal, work out a strategy for refuting either the stated reasons or the warrants or both in each of the above arguments.

Moving Your Audience: Audience-based Reasons, *Ethos*, and *Pathos*

In Chapters 5 and 6 we discussed *logos*—the logical structure of reasons and evidence in an argument. When writers focus primarily on *logos*, they often desire to clarify their own thinking as much as to persuade. In this chapter we shift our attention increasingly toward persuasion, in which our goal is to move our audience as much as possible toward our own position on an issue. Specifically, we discuss strategies for developing arguments that are rooted in your audience's values and beliefs (audience-based reasons); that portray you, the writer, as credible and trustworthy (*ethos*); and that appeal effectively to your audience's feelings and emotions (*pathos*).

Although we talk about persuasion in this chapter, we don't intend the Sophists' meaning of *persuasion* that was examined in the debate between Socrates and Callicles. As you recall, Callicles' interest was not in the truth, but simply in winning the debate. For Callicles, truth became whatever the victor proclaimed. Our meaning of persuasion presupposes an arguer whose position is derived from a reasoned investigation of evidence and a commitment to consistent and articulable values and beliefs. Persuasion is the art of making that position as forceful as possible to different audiences.

STARTING FROM YOUR READERS' BELIEFS: THE POWER OF AUDIENCE-BASED REASONS

Persuasive writing begins with an assessment of your audience's values. What is a good reason to you might not be a good reason to others.

As Aristotle showed, real-world arguments are based on enthymemes, which are incomplete logical statements that depend for their completeness on the audience's acceptance of underlying assumptions, values, or beliefs (see pp. 100–101). Finding audience-based reasons means discovering enthymemes that are effectively rooted in your audience's values.

Difference between Writer- and Audience-based Reasons

To illustrate the difference between writer- and audience-based reasons, let's return to Young Person's argument with Parents over her curfew time. As you may recall from Chapter 1, Young Person tried a couple of arguments that didn't work:

I should be allowed to stay out until 2:00 A.M. (1) because I am sixteen years old and (2) because all my friends' parents let them stay out until 2:00 A.M.

The reason and grounds for both arguments are irrefutable: Young Person has the documents to prove she's sixteen, and she can cite *ad nauseum* all her fortunate friends whose parents let them stay out until the wee hours. Her arguments fail because both of the warrants, which seem perfectly reasonable to Young Person, are unacceptable to Parents.

Warrant for 1: All sixteen-year-olds should be allowed to stay out until 2:00 A.M.

Warrant for 2: The rules in this family should be based on the rules in other families.

To put it another way, Young Person's arguments aren't rooted in Parents' values. She uses writer-based rather than audience-based reasons.

Thus Young Person's rhetorical problem is that she has linked her reasons to her own values instead of to values that she and Parents can share. In effect, she needs to identify shared warrants that won't require extensive backing to gain her parents' acceptance. This search for shared warrants can lead to clarification of the issue and hence will influence the content and shape of the argument itself.

Perhaps Young Person could try a reason like this:

I should be able to set my own curfew because that will give me the freedom to demonstrate my own maturity to you.

Or, if this reason takes wholesomeness further than she wants to take it, she might put her reason this way:

I should be able to set my own curfew because I need enough freedom to learn through my own mistakes.

These reasons probably link to her parents' values—the desire to see their daughter grow in maturity—and make the case that maturity is best demonstrated when a person is free rather than constrained. We can't say whether this argument will win the night for Young Person, but we can say that it is much more persuasive than giving reasons based only on Young Person's values.

Next let's take a more serious example. Suppose you believed that the government should build a new power generation dam on the nearby Rapid River—a project bitterly opposed by environmentalist groups. Which of the following two arguments would be the most persuasive to this audience (people with strong environmentalist leanings)?

1. The federal government should push ahead with its plan to build a new power generation dam on the Rapid River because the only alternative is a coal-fired plant or a nuclear plant, both of which are much greater environmental hazards than clean, water-generated power.
2. The federal government should push ahead with its plan to build a new power generation dam on the Rapid River because this area needs cheap electricity in order to stimulate the growth of heavy industry.

Although intuitively we know that Argument 1 would be more powerful to environmentalists, let's analyze both arguments to see why.

Clearly, the warrant of Argument 1 ("Given alternative means of generating power, we should choose those least hazardous to the environment") is rooted in the values and beliefs of environmentalists, whereas the warrant of Argument 2 ("Growth of industry is good") is apt to make them wince. To environmentalists, industry is not a good: It means more congestion, more smokestacks, and more pollution. On the other hand, Argument 2 might be very persuasive to out-of-work laborers, to whom industry means jobs.

From the perspective of *logos* alone, Arguments 1 and 2 are both sound. Both are internally consistent, and both proceed from reasonable premises. But as pieces of persuasion—arguments that work, that move their intended audiences—they have quite different appeals. Argument 1 proceeds from the values of people committed primarily to protecting the environment; Argument 2 proceeds from the values of people committed primarily to economic growth and jobs.

Of course, it should be understood that neither argument proves that the government should build the dam, for both arguments are open to refutation and counterargument. Facing Argument 1, for example, thoroughgoing environmentalists might counter by arguing that the government shouldn't build any power plant at all. They could argue that energy conservation would obviate the need for a new power plant. Or they might argue that building a dam hurts the environment in ways other

than pollution. Our point, then, isn't that Argument 1 will persuade environmentalists. Rather, our point is that Argument 1 will be more persuasive than 2 because it is rooted in beliefs and values that the intended audience shares.

Let's take a third example by returning to the argument we presented in Chapter 1, student Gordon Adams' request for exemption from Arizona State University's (ASU's) numeracy requirement. Gordon's central argument, as you will recall, was that as a lawyer he would have no use for algebra. Placed in Toulmin's terms, Gordon's argument goes like this:

CLAIM:	I should be exempted from the ASU algebra requirement.
STATED REASON:	because in my chosen field of law I will have absolutely no use for algebra
FOUNDATIONS:	testimony from lawyers and others that lawyers never use algebra
WARRANT:	(left largely unstated and undeveloped in Gordon's argument) General education requirements should be based on career utility. (More narrowly: If a course doesn't meet an individual student's particular career need, then it should not be required for that student.)
BACKING:	(not provided) arguments that career utility should be the chief criterion for requiring General Studies courses

In our discussions of this case with students and faculty, students generally vote to waive Gordon's numeracy requirement, whereas faculty generally vote against the request. Disapproval of the request, in fact, was the decision at ASU, where the University Standards Committee denied Gordon's appeal, thus requiring him to take college algebra and delaying his entrance into law school.

Why do faculty generally differ from students on this issue? Mainly because faculty won't accept Gordon's warrant that usefulness for careers should be the chief criterion for determining general education requirements. General education, in the view of most teachers, immerses students in the traditional liberal arts, which provide a base of common learning that links us to the past and that teaches us general principles of analysis and interpretation useful in any field. Algebra is required because it is one of the traditional liberal arts, a means of teaching students a mathematical way of knowing and thinking.

Gordon's argument, instead of being rooted in the audience's value system, directly attacks it. Moreover, his argument further threatens faculty because approving Gordon's appeal would set a dangerous precedent. It would open a floodgate of student requests to waive literature, art, history, or any other general education requirement on the grounds of its uselessness for a chosen career.

How might Gordon have created a more persuasive argument? In our view, Gordon may have been more successful had he adopted the faculty's belief in the value of the numeracy requirement and argued that he had met

this requirement through alternative means. His best approach, we believe, would have been to base his argument on an enthymeme like this:

I should be exempted from the algebra requirement because my unusual background as a machine and welding contractor and inventor has already provided me with an equivalent kind of mathematical knowledge.

Following this audience-based approach, he would remove from his argument all the material about algebra's uselessness for lawyers and use the saved space to document more fully his creative achievements and the mathematical ways of thinking he acquired as a welding contractor and an inventor, designer, and maker of racing bikes. This approach, besides accepting the audience's values, would also reduce faculty and administrative fear of setting precedents, because few students would come to ASU with Gordon's unusual background, and those who did could apply for similar exemption. We can't say such an argument would have swayed the committee. We can say it would have been more persuasive than his direct attack on his audience's value system.

On the other hand, arguments like Gordon's that call fundamental assumptions into doubt are potentially valuable. Although he probably would have greatly improved his chances of getting a waiver by accepting his audience's values and beliefs, his challenge of those beliefs might in the long run contribute to systemic change that he values. By arguing that he's a special case, Gordon would have left the rule unchallenged. His requirement would have been waived, but no other cases would have been affected by that ruling. His is a high-risk/high-gain strategy that, while unsuccessful, may place seeds of doubt and questions that could potentially bring about changes in the requirements and affect thousands of students.

FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

Working in groups, decide which of the following pairs of reasons is likely to be more persuasive to the specified audience. Be prepared to explain your reasoning to the class as a whole by writing out the implied warrant for each because clause and deciding whether the specific audience would be likely to grant it.

1. Audience: a prospective employer
 - a. I would be a good candidate for a summer job at the Happy Trails Dude Ranch because I have always wanted to spend a summer in the mountains and because I like to ride horses.
 - b. I would be a good candidate for a summer job at the Happy Trails Dude Ranch because I am a hard worker, because I have had considerable experience serving others in my volunteer work at Mercy Hospital, and because I know how to make guests feel welcome and relaxed.
2. Audience: a prospective buyer of encyclopedias
 - a. You should buy these encyclopedias because they are designed especially for students and are written in a more popular, fun-to-read style than its major competitors' encyclopedias.
 - b. You should buy these encyclopedias because then I will win my company's sales award and my wife and I will win a free trip to Hawaii.
3. Audience: a group of people who oppose the present grading system on the grounds that it is too competitive
 - a. We should keep the present grading system because it prepares people for the competitive world of business.
 - b. We should keep the present grading system because it tells students there are certain standards of excellence that must be met if individuals are to reach their full potential.
4. Audience: young people ages fifteen to twenty-five
 - a. You should become a vegetarian because an all-vegetable diet is better for your heart than a diet that includes meat.
 - b. You should become a vegetarian because that will help eliminate the suffering of animals caused by factory farming.

Finding Audience-based Reasons: Asking Questions about Your Audience

As the above exercise makes clear, reasons are most persuasive when linked to the audience's values. This principle seems simple enough, yet it is an easy one to forget. Among the most common complaints employers have about job candidates during interviews is candidates' tendency to emphasize what the company can do for the candidate instead of what the candidate can do for the company. Job search experts agree that the best way to prepare for a job interview is to study everything you can about the company in order to relate your skills to the company's problems and needs. The same advice applies to writers of arguments.

To find out all you can about your audience, we recommend that you ask yourself, early in the writing process, a series of questions that can be grouped into five categories:

1. Who is your audience? Are you writing directly to a decision maker, such as a proposal to a board of directors to start a new research and development project in your company? Or are you writing to a wider, more inclusive audience, such as the general readership of a newspaper or magazine? Most formal arguments in college are written to general audiences, but "case" assignments or arguments written for specific occasions in your life (a letter to the financial aid office arguing for a student loan) can give you practice at writing to specific decision makers.
2. How much does your audience know or care about your issue? Are they currently part of the conversation or do they need quite a bit of background? If you are writing to specific decision makers (for example, the administration at your college about restructuring the intramural program), are they currently aware of the issue and do they care about it? If not, you may need to shock them into seeing the problem.

3. What is your audience's current attitude toward your issue? Is your audience opposed to your position on the issue or are they neutral? If neutral, are they open-minded? What other points of view besides your own will your audience be weighing?

4. What weaknesses will your audience find in your own argument? Why might they oppose your view on this issue? What aspects of your position will they find threatening?

5. Finally, what values, beliefs, or assumptions about the world do you and your audience share? Despite differences of view on this issue, where can you find common links with your audience? How might you use these links to build a bridge to your audience?

Suppose, for example, that you support universal mandatory testing for the HIV virus to help reduce unknowing transmission of AIDS. Although your audience will be general readers ranging from people who already accept your view to those who deeply oppose it, you intend to aim your argument at undecided people, who will also be weighing opposing views. What assumptions could you make about those who oppose your views? You imagine that many gay people might oppose mandatory testing as well as many political liberals such as members of the American Civil Liberties Union. You decide to ask first what each of these groups probably fears about your position. Gay people and others in high-risk categories may fear finding out whether they are infected, and they certainly fear discrimination from being publicly identified as HIV carriers. Moreover, mandatory AIDS testing may be seen as part of a conservative backlash against the gay community, who recently have made important strides toward gaining acceptance in American society. Liberals, besides also fearing a gay backlash, will be concerned about the attack on privacy and other civil liberties that mandatory testing might entail.

You should then consider the values that you share with your opponents because such values provide opportunities to build bridges toward your audience. You might decide, at a minimum, that both you and your opponents want to find a cure for AIDS and that both of you fear the horrors of an epidemic. Moreover, you want to stress that you share with your opponents a respect for the dignity and human value of those who are at high risk for AIDS. Particularly, you do not see yourself as part of a gay backlash.

As you begin to write, you must try to develop an argumentative strategy that reduces your audience's fears and incorporates reasons linked to their values. Your thinking might go something like this:

PROBLEM:	How can I create an argument rooted in shared values?
POSSIBLE SOLUTIONS:	I can try to reduce the audience's fear that mandatory AIDS testing implies a criticism of gay people. I could show my acceptance of gays and my sympathy for victims of AIDS. I could make sure my plan assured confidentiality. I must make it clear that my concern is stopping the spread of the disease and that this concern is shared by the gay community.

PROBLEM: How can I reduce fear that mandatory AIDS testing violates civil liberties?

POSSIBLE SOLUTIONS: I must show that the "enemy" here is the AIDS virus and not victims of the disease. Also, I might cite precedents for how we fight other infectious diseases. For example, many states require marriage license applicants to take a VD test, and on numerous occasions communities have imposed quarantines to halt the spread of epidemics. I could also argue that the rights of the gay community to be free from this disease outweigh individual rights to privacy, especially when confidentiality is assured.

The preceding example shows how a writer's focus on audience can shape the actual invention of the argument.

FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

Working individually or in small groups, plan an audience-based argumentative strategy for one or more of the following cases. Follow the thinking process used by the writer of the mandatory AIDS-testing argument: (1) state several problems that the writer must solve to reach the audience and (2) develop possible solutions to those problems.

1. An argument for the right of software companies to continue making and selling violent video games. Aim the argument at parents who deeply oppose their children's playing these games.
2. An argument limiting the number of terms that can be served by members of Congress. Aim the argument at supporters of an influential incumbent who would no longer be eligible to hold office.
3. An argument supporting a one-dollar-per-gallon increase in gasoline taxes as an energy conservation measure. Aim your argument at business leaders who oppose the tax on the grounds that it will raise the cost of consumer goods.
4. An argument supporting the legalization of cocaine. Aim your argument at readers of *Reader's Digest*, a conservative magazine that supports the current war on drugs.

ETHOS AND PATHOS AS PERSUASIVE APPEALS: AN OVERVIEW

The previous section focused on audience-based reasons as a means of moving an audience. In terms of the rhetorical triangle introduced in Chapter 4, searching for audience-based reasons can be seen primarily as a function of *logos*—finding the best structure of reasons and evidence to sway an audience—although, as we shall see, it also affects the other points of the triangle. The next sections turn to the power of *ethos* (the appeal to credibility) and of *pathos* (the appeal to emotions) as further means of enhancing the rhetorical effectiveness of your arguments.

From the outset, you shouldn't think of these three kinds of appeals as, say, separate ingredients in a cake. You wouldn't say something like "This argument has enough *logos*; now I need to add some *ethos* and *pathos*." It may be helpful, however, to think of these terms as a series of lenses through which you filter and transform your ideas. Thus, if you intensify the *pathos* lens (such as by using more concrete language or vivid examples), the resulting image will appeal more strongly to the audience's emotions. If you change the *ethos* lens (perhaps by adopting a different tone toward your audience), the projected image of you as a person will be subtly altered. If you intensify the *logos* lens (by adding, say, more data for evidence), you will draw the reader's attention to the logical appeal of the argument. *Logos*, *ethos*, and *pathos* work together to create an impact on the reader. The three terms give us a common language to talk about the forces that create that impact.

Consider, for example, the variable effects of the following arguments, all having roughly the same logical appeal:

1. People should adopt a vegetarian diet because only through vegetarianism can we prevent the cruelty to animals that results from factory farming.

2. I hope you enjoyed your fried chicken this evening. You know, of course, how much that chicken suffered just so you could have a tender and juicy meal. Commercial growers cram the chickens so tightly together into cages that they have to have their beaks cut off to keep them from pecking each others' eyes out. The only way to end the torture is to adopt a vegetarian diet.

3. People who eat meat are no better than sadists who torture other sentient creatures in order to enhance their own pleasure. Unless you enjoy sadistic tyranny over others, you have only one choice: Become a vegetarian.

4. People committed to justice might consider the extent to which our love of eating meat requires the agony of animals. A visit to a modern chicken factory—where chickens live their entire lives in tiny darkened coops without room to spread their wings—might raise doubts about our right to inflict such suffering on sentient creatures. Indeed, such a visit might persuade us that vegetarianism is a more just alternative.

Each argument has roughly the same logical core:

CLAIM:	People should adopt a vegetarian diet.
STATED REASON:	Vegetarianism is the only way to end the suffering of animals caused by factory farming.
FOUNDATIONS:	the evidence of suffering in commercial chicken farms, where chickens peck each others' eyes out; other evidence of animal suffering in factory farms; evidence that only widespread adoption of vegetarianism will end factory farming
WARRANT:	If we have an alternative to inflicting suffering on animals, we should adopt it.

But the impact of each argument on audiences varies. The difference between Arguments 1 and 2, most of our students report, is the emotional power of 2. Whereas Argument 1 refers only to the abstraction "cruelty to animals," Argument 2 paints a vivid picture of chickens with their beaks cut off to prevent their pecking each other blind. Argument 2 makes a stronger appeal to *pathos* (not necessarily a stronger argument) by stirring feelings—hitting the heart, as it were, as well as the head.

The difference between Arguments 1 and 3 concerns both *ethos* and *pathos*. Argument 3 appeals to the emotions through such highly charged words as "torture," "sadist," and "tyranny." But Argument 3 also draws attention to its writer, and most of our students report not liking that writer very much. His stance is self-righteous and insulting; he prefers shocking his audience by accusing them of sadism rather than by showing empathy for their values. We are not apt to trust such a writer. In contrast, the writer of Argument 4 establishes a more positive *ethos*. He establishes rapport with his audience by assuming they are committed to justice and by qualifying his argument with conditional terms such as "might" and "perhaps." He also invites sympathy for his problem—an appeal to *pathos*—by offering a specific description of chickens crammed into tiny coops.

Which of these arguments is best? They all have appropriate uses. Arguments 1 and 4 seem aimed at receptive audiences reasonably open to exploration of the issue, while Arguments 2 and 3 seem designed to shock complacent audiences or to rally a group of True Believers. Even Argument 3, which borders on being so abusive that it would be ineffective in most instances, might work as a rallying speech at a convention of animal liberation activists.

Our point thus far is that *logos*, *ethos*, and *pathos* are different aspects of the same whole, different lenses for mixing and coloring the light you project upon the screen. Every choice you make as a writer affects in some way each of the three appeals. The rest of this chapter examines these choices in more detail.

HOW TO CREATE AN EFFECTIVE *ETHOS*: THE APPEAL TO CREDIBILITY

Long ago the classical rhetoricians of Greece and Rome recognized that an argument would be more persuasive if the audience trusted the speaker. Aristotle argued that such trust is created within the speech itself rather than being brought to the speech by the prior reputation of the speaker. In the speaker's manner and delivery, in his tone and voice, in his choice of words, in his arrangement of reasons, in his fairness and sympathy toward opposing views, and in other subtler ways, a speaker could project the image of being a fair-minded, trustworthy person. Aristotle called the impact of the writer's credibility the appeal from *ethos*.

How does a writer create credibility? We will suggest three ways.

Create Credibility by Being Knowledgeable about Your Issue

The first way to gain credibility is to *be* credible; that is, to argue from a strong base of knowledge, to have at hand the examples, personal experiences, statistics, and other empirical data needed to make a sound case. If you have done your homework (people who “do their homework” are highly respected in business, government, and academia) you will command the attention of most audiences.

Create Credibility by Demonstrating Fairness

Besides being knowledgeable about your issue, you need to demonstrate fairness and courtesy to opposing views. In Chapter 1, the members of the well-functioning committee differed from the writer of the crank letter by showing respect rather than contempt for opposing views. Because true argument can occur only where persons may reasonably disagree, your *ethos* will be strengthened if you demonstrate that you understand and empathize with other points of view. Of course, there are times when it’s effective to scorn an opposing view, but these times are rare, and they occur mainly when you are addressing an audience predisposed toward your position. As a general rule, demonstrating empathy to opposing views is the best strategy.

Create Credibility by Building a Bridge to Your Audience

A third means of establishing credibility—building a bridge to your audience—has been treated at length in the first part of this chapter in our discussion of audience-based reasons. By grounding your argument in shared values and assumptions, you demonstrate your good will and enhance your image as a trustworthy person. We mention audience-based reasons here to show how this aspect of *logos*—finding the reasons that are most rooted in the audience’s values—also affects your *ethos* as a person respectful of your readers’ views.

HOW TO CREATE *PATHOS*: THE APPEAL TO EMOTIONS

At the height of the protest movement against the Vietnam War, a group of protesters “napalmed” a puppy by dousing it with gasoline and setting it on fire. All over the country Americans were outraged by the demonstration. Letters began pouring in to local newspapers protesting the cruel killing of the puppy. The protesters responded as follows: “Why are you outraged by the napalming of a single puppy when you are not outraged by the daily napalming of human babies in Vietnam?”

The protesters’ argument depended on *pathos*. *Logos*-centered arguments, the protesters felt, numbed the mind to human suffering. The napalming of the puppy gave presence to the reality of suffering; it reawakened feeling, creating in Americans a gut-level revulsion that, according to protesters, should have been felt all along for the war.

Of course, the napalmed puppy was a real-life event, part of a street theater argument, not a written essay. But the same strategy is often used in written arguments. Anti-abortion arguers use it whenever they present graphic descriptions of the dismembering of a fetus, tiny limb by limb, during the abortion process; proponents of euthanasia use it when they describe the prolonged suffering of a terminally ill patient hooked hopelessly to machines. And students use it when they argue with a professor that their grade should be raised from a C to a B lest the student lose his scholarship and have to return to poverty, shattering the dreams of his dear old grandmother.

Are such appeals to emotion legitimate? Our answer is yes if the emotional appeals clarify an issue rather than cloud it. Emotional appeals have an important place in argument because we can know with our hearts as well as with our minds. When used effectively, appeals to emotion help us clarify an issue by revealing its fullest human meaning. That is why arguments are often improved through the use of sensory detail that allows us to see the reality of a problem or through stories that make specific cases and instances come alive.

Appeals to emotion become illegitimate, we believe, when they serve to cloud issues rather than to clarify them. The student’s argument for a grade of B is, we feel, an illegitimate appeal to emotion. We would argue that a student’s grade in a course should be based on his or her performance in the course, not on the student’s need. The image of the dear old grandmother may provide a legitimate motive for the student to study harder, but not for the professor to change a grade. On the other hand, the same image would be both appropriate and effective in a letter from the student’s parents urging him to study harder.

Although it is difficult to classify all the ways that writers can create emotional appeals, we will focus on four strategies: concrete language; examples and illustrations; word choice, metaphors, and analogies; and appeals to audience values.

Appeal to Emotions by Using Concrete Language

In writing courses, teachers often try to help students develop “voice” or “style.” In general, these terms refer to the liveliness, interest level, personality, or beauty of the prose. One of the chief strategies for achieving voice is the effective use of concrete language and specific detail. When used in argument, such language usually heightens *pathos*. Consider the differences between the first and second drafts of the following student argument on the advantages of riding the bus over driving a personal car:

FIRST DRAFT

People who prefer driving a car to taking a bus think that taking the bus will increase the stress of the daily commute. Just the opposite is true. Not being able to find a parking spot when in a hurry to work or school can cause a person stress. Taking the bus gives a person time to read or sleep, etc. It could be used as a mental break.

Although the argument is logically structured, the lack of details makes it emotionally flat, even dull.

SECOND DRAFT

Taking the bus can be more relaxing than driving a car. Having someone else behind the wheel gives people time to chat with friends or cram for an exam. They can balance their checkbooks, do homework, doze off, read the daily newspaper, or get lost in a novel rather than foaming at the mouth looking for a parking space. Taking the bus is break time rather than stress time.

In this revision, specific details make the prose livelier by creating images that trigger positive feelings—who wouldn't want some free time to doze off or get lost in a novel?

Appeal to Emotions by Using Examples and Illustrations

Stories, examples, and illustrations give your argument a powerful presence. Such specifics serve two purposes: As data, they provide evidence that supports your stated reasons; simultaneously, they evoke emotional responses that make your argument more vivid and memorable.

Consider the lack of presence in the following passage written by a student arguing that the core curriculum at his university should include multicultural studies.

EARLY DRAFT

Another advantage of a multicultural education is that it will help us see our own culture in a broader perspective. If all we know is our own heritage, then we might not be inclined to see anything bad about this heritage because we won't know anything else. But if we study other heritages, then we can see the pros and cons of our own heritage.

Now note the increase in emotional as well as logical appeal when the writer adds specific examples.

REVISED DRAFT

Another advantage of multicultural education is that it raises questions about traditional Western values. For example, the idea of private property and of ownership is part of the American dream (buying a house with a picket fence in the country, and so forth). It is also one of the basic rights guaranteed in the Constitution of the United States. However, in studying the beliefs of American Indians, students are confronted with an opposing view of property rights. When the U.S. Government wanted to buy land in the Pacific Northwest from Chief Sealth, he replied:

The president in Washington sends words that he wishes to buy our land. But how can you buy or sell the sky? The land? The idea is strange to us. If we do

not own the freshness of the air and the sparkle of the water, how can you buy them? . . . We are part of the earth and it is part of us. . . . This we know: the earth does not belong to man, man belongs to the earth.

Our class was shocked when we realized the contrast between Western values and Chief Sealth's values. One of our best class discussions was initiated by the above quotation from Chief Sealth. Had we not been exposed to a view from another culture, we would have never been led to question the "rightness" of Western values.

The revised draft is much more persuasive. The writer begins by evoking a traditional middle-class American dream—a little house in the country, far from the stress of city life, bordered with a picket fence—which is then immediately undercut by the haunting speech of Chief Sealth. Chief Sealth's vision is not of land domesticated and enclosed, but of land as open, endless, and unobtainable as the sky. In this one brief quotation, the student shows us how a study of Chief Sealth can problematize our belief in private property and thus brings to life his previously abstract point about a benefit of multicultural education.

Another place where writers often use examples to evoke emotions is in their introductions. At the beginning of an argument, a vivid example—real or hypothetical—can shape your audience's emotional response to your issue. In using an opening example, the writer must be careful to fit the example to the claim. To illustrate the potential and the pitfalls of introductory scenes, consider the following vignettes from two different arguments dealing with homeless people in a downtown business area. The first argument, pleading for public support for legislation to help the poor, aims at creating sympathy for homeless people. It opens this way:

It hurts the most when you come home from the theater on a cold January night. As you pull your scarf tighter around your neck and push your gloved hands deeper into the pockets of your wool overcoat, you notice the man huddled over the sewer grate, his feet wrapped in newspapers. He blows on his hands, then tucks them under his armpits and lies down on the sidewalk with his shoulders over the grate, his bed for the night. There are hundreds like him downtown, and their numbers are growing. Who in our legislature knows or cares about these people?

The second argument, supporting an anti-loitering law to keep homeless people out of a posh shopping area, creates sympathy not for the homeless but for the shoppers.

Panhandlers used to sit on corners with tin cups. Not any more. I'm not talking here about the legitimate poor—homeless mothers or the blind or crippled. These are ratty, middle-aged woe salesmen drinking fortified wine from a sack or hostile young men with tattoos who appear to be saving their handouts to buy Harley hogs or uzis. They scuttle up behind you, breathing their foul breath down your neck, tap your arm or grab your sleeve, and demand your money. If you try to ignore them, they just keep following you. I'm sure all these poor souls have a tale to explain their present state. But the bottom line is they don't have a *right* to my money, and I do have a right to walk down a public thoroughfare unaccosted.

Each of these scenes makes a case for a particular point of view toward the homeless. They help us see a problem through the eyes of the person making the argument. Although each is effective in its own way, both will face resistance in some quarters. The first scene will strike some as sentimental; the second will strike others as flippant and indifferent. The emotional charge set by an introductory scene can sometimes work against you as well as for you. If you have doubts about an opening scene, test it out on other readers before using it in your final draft.

FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

Suppose that you want to write arguments on the following topics. Working as individuals or in small groups, think of a description, scene, or brief story that could be used in the introduction of your essay to create an emotional appeal favorable to your argument.

1. a. an argument supporting the use of animals for biomedical research
b. an argument opposing the use of animals for biomedical research
(Note that the purpose of the first scene is to create sympathy for the use of animals in biomedical research, perhaps by focusing readers' attention on the happy smile of a child cured by a medical breakthrough made possible through animal research. The purpose of the second scene is to create sympathy for the opposing view, perhaps by focusing on the suffering of an animal during an experiment.)
2. a. an argument for a program to restore a national park to its pristine, natural condition
b. an argument for creating more camping places and overnight sites for recreational vehicles in a national park
(The purpose of the first scene is to arouse sympathy for restoring a park's beauty; the purpose of the second scene is to arouse sympathy for more camping spaces.)
3. a. an argument favoring legalization of drugs
b. an argument opposing legalization of drugs
4. a. an argument favoring TV advertising of condoms
b. an argument opposing TV advertising of condoms

Appeal to Emotions through Appropriate Word Choice, Metaphors, and Analogies

Another way to create emotional appeals is to select words, metaphors, or analogies that have emotional connotations suitable to your purpose. If you oppose a local official, you might call him "a petty bureaucrat," but if you support him, you might call him a "beleaguered administrator." Likewise, the reader's feelings toward the official would be shaped differently if you called him "assertive" as opposed to "pushy," "decisive" as opposed to "obstinate," or "careful about money" as opposed to "miserly."

Similarly, we can use favorable or unfavorable metaphors, analogies, and other comparisons to shape our audience's emotional response to our arguments. A tax bill might be regarded either as a "poison to the economy" or as "economic medicine"; an insurance salesman might be "like a good neighbor" or "like a voracious shark"; or a new set of audiotapes in the library might be "a valuable new learning tool" or "another cheap educational gadget." In each case, the differing comparisons create differing emotional appeals.

The Problem of Slanted Language

The writer's power in choosing one set of words over another raises the problem of how language can be slanted or biased to distort the truth. One of the tricks of the Sophists (see the discussion of Callicles in Chapter 1) is to choose slanted words that bias an argument by evoking emotional responses favorable to the arguer's aims but distortive of the truth. Suppose that you are a real estate developer wishing to attract house buyers to your new subdivision, Paradise Village. Here is what an advertising blurb on Paradise Village might look like:

Paradise Village, located on the banks of Clearwater Lake, combines the best of city and country life. Dozens of hiking trails through the Clearwater Woods are only minutes away from your doorstep, while the city itself is virtually at your fingertips. An excellent bus transportation system links Paradise Village with the Metropolis City Center only 15 minutes away.

But consider what a disillusioned homebuyer might say when telling the "truth" about Paradise Village.

Before buying in Paradise Village, check out carefully the "promises" made in those sales brochures. Clearwater Lake isn't really a lake; it was created by developers by damming up Clearwater Creek, and so far it has been an unattractive pond, full of moss and water bugs but no fish. Clearwater Woods is simply a couple acres of trees between housing developments. Nowhere within the woods are you free from freeway noise. As for the city being at your fingertips, the bus ride is indeed 15 minutes—at 7:00 A.M. Sunday mornings. But during commuting hours the ride often takes an hour each way. Moreover, buses run infrequently at approximately one-hour intervals during the week and two-hour intervals on weekends.

As the examples show, it is possible to use language deceptively by choosing words that manipulate a reader's response.

A More Complex Look at Slanting

But this example raises a more complex philosophical question: To what extent is there really an objective truth that can be portrayed fully in language? We tend to think of slanted language as the opposite of objective language or "true" language.

When a witness takes the stand in a trial, he or she swears "to tell the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth." We like to think that "telling the whole truth" is possible in language. We like to believe that

objective language tells the whole truth, whereas slanted language distorts it. But can we *ever* tell the whole truth in language? Probably not. When we choose word A rather than word B, when we decide to put this word in the subject slot of our sentence rather than that word, when we select this detail rather than that detail to put into our paragraph, we create bias.

Let's take an illustration, once again focusing on homeless people. When you walk down a city street and see an unshaven man sitting on the sidewalk with his back up against a doorway, wearing old, slovenly clothes, and drinking from a bottle hidden in a sack, what is the "correct" word for this person?

- | | |
|----------------------|-----------------------------|
| a person on welfare? | a crazy person? |
| a beggar? | an indigent? |
| a wino? | a bum? |
| a homeless person? | a drunk? |
| a pauper? | a victim of the system? |
| a hobo? | a mendicant? |
| a panhandler? | a tramp? |
| a transient? | a scumbag leech on society? |
| a brother in need? | a loafer? |
| a streetperson? | a person down on his luck? |

None of these words is the "correct" term because no such objective or correct term exists. When we choose one of the words, we look at the person through that word's lens. If we call the person a "beggar," for example, we bring up connotations from the historical past, particularly the Bible, where begging provided an opportunity for charity. The word *beggar* is associated with words like *alms*, which one gives to beggars. *Beggar*, then is a more favorable word than *panhandler*, which conjures up the image of an obnoxious person pestering you for money. Calling the person "homeless," on the other hand, takes our attention off the person's actions and places it on the cause of the problem, in this case a faulty economic system. Likewise, the word *wino* focuses on a cause, but now the cause is alcoholism rather than economics.

FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

Divide the class into two groups. The task of the first group is to compose a list of words, analogies, or metaphors that create positive feelings for each of the following classes of people: unemployed people, people who sell used cars, lawyers, college professors, professional wrestlers, hunters, publishers of *Playboy*, and cheerleaders. The task of the second group is to compose a list that creates negative feelings. Then compare the lists from the two groups.

EXAMPLE:	CORPORATE EXECUTIVES
<i>Positive connotations:</i>	industrial leaders, chief executive officers, economic decision-makers, top-level corporation heads
<i>Negative connotations:</i>	fat cats, business tycoons, winners in the corporate rat race, country club elite, business kingpins, business moguls

Appeal to Emotions through Sensitivity to Your Audience's Values

We conclude this section by returning to the persuasive strategy introduced at the beginning of the chapter—finding audience-based reasons. What appeals to a writer's emotions may not necessarily appeal to the emotions of her intended audience.

Suppose that your college or university decided to raise tuition substantially, causing you and many of your classmates to feel truly strapped for funds. Typically, college administrators support tuition increases insofar as they enhance the economic stability of the institution. Students, on the other hand, oppose tuition increases insofar as they impose personal hardships. If you wanted to write a powerful argument against raising tuition, you might choose an emotional appeal based on your own values (sorrowful descriptions of hard-up students). But a better route might be emotional appeals aimed at your audience's values: stories of students who plan to transfer or to drop out of school because of the increased tuition costs. Loss of potential revenues through decreased enrollments probably triggers greater consternation among administrators than your having to borrow another grand from the bank. Likewise, administrators explaining the plan to students should focus on reasons that appeal to students' values; for example, a tuition increase allows hiring and retention of top professors, which leads to a better academic reputation of the college, which leads in turn to higher prestige for students' degrees.

APPLYING THIS CHAPTER'S PRINCIPLES TO YOUR OWN WRITING: WHERE SHOULD YOU REVEAL YOUR THESIS?

To demonstrate the interrelatedness of *logos*, *ethos*, and *pathos* as you compose your own arguments, we conclude this chapter by turning to a question often asked in our argument classes: "Where should I place my thesis? Should I put it in the introduction so that I tell my readers up front where I stand on an issue, or should I wait until later in the paper to reveal where I stand?" Although this may seem like a small technical matter, the placement of the thesis can profoundly affect an audience's perception of you as author (your *ethos*) as well as their emotional experience while reading your essay (your argument's *pathos*).

The standard way of conducting an argument is to state your own position near the beginning of your essay and then to summarize and refute the opposing views. Rhetorically, however, it is not always advantageous to tell your readers where you stand at the start of your argument or to separate yourself so definitively from your opposition. Sometimes it is to your advantage to keep the issue open, delaying the revelation of your own position until the middle or end of the essay. The effect of an up-front thesis—what we might call the "standard form"—is quite different from that of a delayed thesis. Let's explore this difference in more detail.

Standard Form Arguments

Figure 7-1 shows the format of a typical “standard form” argument—the form that results in what we have called a “self-announcing” structure. Like a tract home or a fast-food restaurant, a standard form argument usually gets the job done, but it does not work well in all environments and for all purposes. Teachers often ask students to write their first arguments in standard form as a way of learning and practicing the basic moves of argumentation. Later, students can experiment with variations on standard form to see the different effects various versions of an argument can have on audiences.

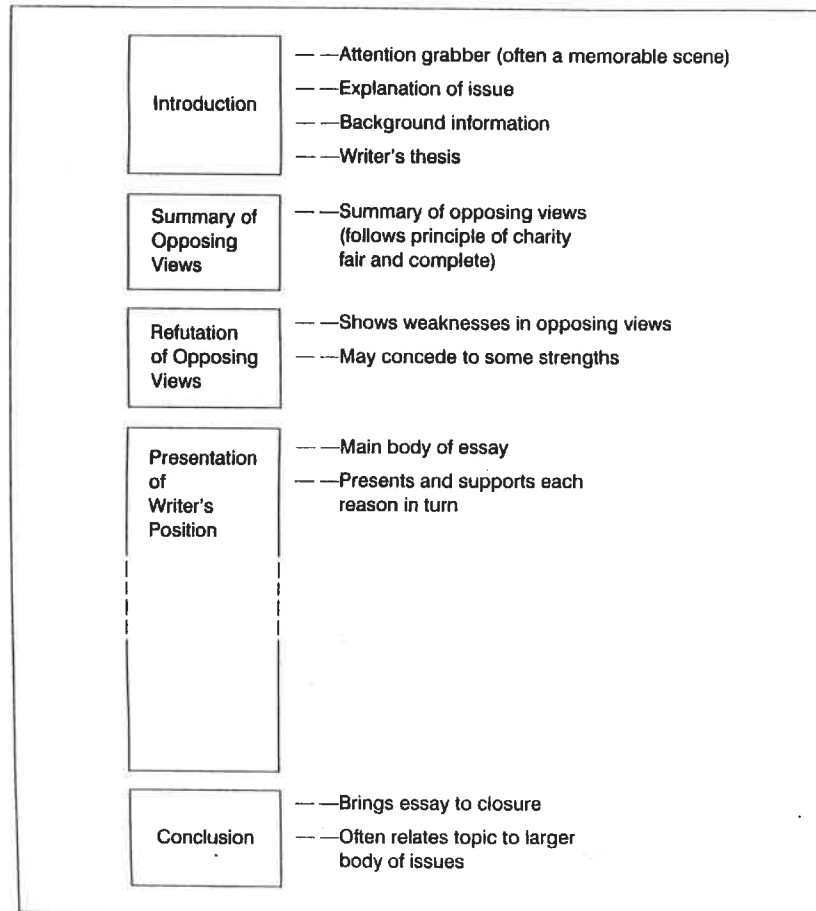


Figure 7-1 Diagram of standard form argument

As Figure 7-1 shows, a standard form argument usually begins with an attention grabber, which may be a startling statistic, a dramatic fact, or a real or hypothetical story or example. The attention grabber is usually followed by an explanation of the issue, which in turn is followed by the writer's thesis statement—often the last sentence of the introduction. Sometimes the writer also needs to provide background information (definitions of key terms, historical information about the origins of the issue, explanations of technical matters, and so forth) before presenting the thesis.

The next major part of a typical standard form argument is a summary and refutation of opposing views. If the opposing argument consists of several parts, the writer has two options for organizing this section: The writer can summarize all of the opposing argument before moving to the refutation, or he or she can summarize and refute one part at a time.

After refuting opposing views, the writer proceeds to present his own position and support it. This is usually the longest part of the argument. Frequently the writer will devote a section, often of several paragraphs or more, to the development of each reason.

Finally, the conclusion of a standard form argument serves to bring the whole argument into focus, thus giving the essay a sense of closure.

The standard form, as we have described it here, has several advantages for newcomers to the writing of arguments. For example, the standard form requires you to summarize opposing views and then to refute them, a challenging conceptual skill well worth practicing. Similarly, there are also conceptual advantages to the standard form's requirement that you put your thesis statement into your introduction. By clearly formulating a thesis statement with because clauses, you can see the whole of your argument in miniature. As your argument becomes increasingly clarified during the drafting process, you can revise your thesis statement to reflect your new intentions.

However, there are many times when the standard form doesn't allow you the subtlety and flexibility necessary to establish an effective and persuasive argument. Let's look now at the differing effect of a delayed thesis argument.

Delayed Thesis Arguments

To illustrate the differences between a standard form and a delayed thesis argument, we have taken a delayed thesis argument by nationally known columnist Ellen Goodman and rewritten it into the standard form. The article appeared shortly after the nation was shocked by a brutal gang rape in New Bedford, Massachusetts, in which a woman was raped on a pool table by patrons of a local bar.* We would like you to read both versions and then answer the class discussion exercises that follow.

* The rape occurred in 1985; the event was made into an Academy Award-winning movie, *The Accused*, starring Jodie Foster.

ELLEN GOODMAN'S ORIGINAL VERSION
(DELAYED THESIS)

Just a couple of months before the pool-table gang rape in New Bedford, Mass., *Hustler* magazine printed a photo feature that reads like a blueprint for the actual crime. There were just two differences between *Hustler* and real life. In *Hustler*, the woman enjoyed it. In real life, the woman charged rape.

There is no evidence that the four men charged with this crime had actually read the magazine. Nor is there evidence that the spectators who yelled encouragement for two hours had held previous ringside seats at pornographic events. But there is a growing sense that the violent pornography being peddled in this country helps to create an atmosphere in which such events occur.

As recently as last month, a study done by two University of Wisconsin researchers suggested that even "normal" men, prescreened college students, were changed by their exposure to violent pornography. After just ten hours of viewing, reported researcher Edward Donnerstein, "the men were less likely to convict in a rape trial, less likely to see injury to a victim, more likely to see the victim as responsible." Pornography may not cause rape directly, he said, "but it maintains a lot of very callous attitudes. It justifies aggression. It even says you are doing a favor to the victim."

If we can prove that pornography is harmful, then shouldn't the victims have legal rights? This, in any case, is the theory behind a city ordinance that recently passed the Minneapolis City Council. Vetoed by the mayor last week, it is likely to be back before the Council for an overriding vote, likely to appear in other cities, other towns. What is unique about the Minneapolis approach is that for the first time it attacks pornography, not because of nudity or sexual explicitness, but because it degrades and harms women. It opposes pornography on the basis of sex discrimination.

University of Minnesota Law Professor Catherine MacKinnon, who co-authored the ordinance with feminist writer Andrea Dworkin, says that they chose this tactic because they believe that pornography is central to "creating and maintaining the inequality of the sexes. . . . Just being a woman means you are injured by pornography."

They defined pornography carefully as, "the sexually explicit subordination of women, graphically depicted, whether in pictures or in words." To fit their legal definition it must also include one of nine conditions that show this subordination, like presenting women who "experience sexual pleasure in being raped or . . . mutilated. . . ." Under this law, it would be possible for a pool-table rape victim to sue *Hustler*. It would be possible for a woman to sue if she were forced to act in a pornographic movie.

Indeed, since the law describes pornography as oppressive to all women, it would be possible for any woman to sue those who traffic in the stuff for violating her civil rights.

In many ways, the Minneapolis ordinance is an appealing attack on an appalling problem. The authors have tried to resolve a long and bubbling conflict among those who have both a deep aversion to pornography and a deep loyalty to the value of free speech. "To date," says Professor MacKinnon, "people have identified the pornographer's freedom with everybody's freedom. But we're saying that the freedom of the pornographer is the subordination of women. It means one has to take a side."

But the sides are not quite as clear as Professor MacKinnon describes them. Nor is the ordinance.

Even if we accept the argument that pornography is harmful to women—and I do—then we must also recognize that anti-Semitic literature is harmful to Jews and racist literature is harmful to blacks. For that matter, Marxist literature may be harmful to government policy. It isn't just women versus pornographers. If women win the right to sue publishers and producers, then so could Jews, blacks, and a long list of people who may be able to prove they have been harmed by books, movies, speeches or even records. The Manson murders, you may recall, were reportedly inspired by the Beatles.

We might prefer a library or book store or lecture hall without *Mein Kampf* or the *Grand Whoever* of the Ku Klux Klan. But a growing list of harmful expressions would inevitably strangle freedom of speech.

This ordinance was carefully written to avoid problems of banning and prior restraint, but the right of any woman to claim damages from pornography is just too broad. It seems destined to lead to censorship.

What the Minneapolis City Council has before it is a very attractive theory. What MacKinnon and Dworkin have written is a very persuasive and useful definition of pornography. But they haven't yet resolved the conflict between the harm of pornography and the value of free speech. In its present form, this is still a shaky piece of law.

OUR REWRITE OF THE SAME ARGUMENT INTO
STANDARD FORM

Just a couple of months before the pool-table gang rape in New Bedford, Mass., *Hustler* magazine printed a photo feature that reads like a blueprint for the actual crime. There were just two differences between *Hustler* and real life. In *Hustler*, the woman enjoyed it. In real life, the woman charged rape. Of course, there is no evidence that the four men charged with this crime had actually read the magazine. Nor is there evi-

dence that the spectators who yelled encouragement for two hours had held previous ringside seats at pornographic events. But there is a growing sense that the violent pornography being peddled in this country helps to create an atmosphere in which such events occur. One city is taking a unique approach to attack this problem. An ordinance recently passed by the Minneapolis City Council outlaws pornography not because it contains nudity or sexually explicit acts, but because it degrades and harms women. Unfortunately, despite the proponents' good intentions, the Minneapolis ordinance is a bad law because it has potentially dangerous consequences.

Let's begin by looking at the opposing view. The proponents of the Minneapolis City Ordinance argue that pornography should be made illegal because it degrades and humiliates women. To show that it degrades women, they cite a recent study done by two University of Wisconsin researchers that suggests that even "normal" men (prescreened college students) are changed by their exposure to violent pornography. After just ten hours of viewing, reported researcher Edward Donnerstein, "the men were less likely to convict in a rape trial, less likely to see injury to a victim, more likely to see the victim as responsible." Pornography may not cause rape directly, he said, "but it maintains a lot of very callous attitudes. It justifies aggression. It even says you are doing a favor to the victim."

The core of their argument runs as follows: "If something degrades and humiliates women, then it discriminates against women. Pornography degrades and humiliates women. Therefore, pornography discriminates against women." Since empirical evidence is mounting that pornography indeed degrades and humiliates women, pornography, their argument goes, is a form of sex discrimination. University of Minnesota Law Professor Catherine MacKinnon, who co-authored the ordinance with feminist writer Andrea Dworkin, says that they chose to focus on pornography as a form of discrimination because they believe that pornography is central to "creating and maintaining the inequality of the sexes. . . . Just being a woman means you are injured by pornography." They defined pornography carefully as "the sexually explicit subordination of women, graphically depicted, whether in pictures or in words." To fit their legal definition it must also include one of nine conditions that show this subordination, like presenting women who "experience sexual pleasure in being raped or . . . mutilated. . . ." Under this law it would be possible for a woman to sue if she were forced to act in a pornographic movie. Indeed, since the law describes pornography as oppressive to all women, it would be possible for any woman to sue those who traffic in the stuff for violating her civil rights.

In many ways, the Minneapolis ordinance is an appealing solution to an appalling problem. The authors have tried to resolve a long and bubbling conflict among those who have both a deep aversion to pornography and a deep loyalty to the value of free speech. "To date," says Professor MacKinnon, "people have identified the pornographer's freedom with

everybody's freedom. But we're saying that the freedom of the pornographer is the subordination of women. It means one has to take a side."

One must concede that the argument is attractive. It seems to give liberal thinkers a way of getting around the problem of free speech. But the reasoning behind the ordinance is flawed because its acceptance could lead to the suppression of a wide range of ideas. Even if we accept the argument that pornography is harmful to women—and I do—then we must also recognize that anti-Semitic literature is harmful to Jews and racist literature is harmful to blacks. For that matter, Marxist literature may be harmful to government policy. It isn't just women versus pornographers. If women win the right to sue publishers and producers, then so could Jews, blacks, and a long list of people who may be able to prove they have been harmed by books, movies, speeches, or even records. The Manson murders, you may recall, were reportedly inspired by the Beatles.

We might prefer a library or book store or lecture hall without Mein Kampf or the Grand Whoever of the Ku Klux Klan. But a growing list of harmful expressions would inevitably strangle freedom of speech. The ordinance was carefully written to avoid problems of banning and prior restraint, but the right of any woman to claim damages from pornography is just too broad. It seems destined to lead to censorship. What the Minneapolis City Council has before it is a very attractive theory. What MacKinnon and Dworkin have written is a very persuasive and useful definition of pornography. But they haven't yet resolved the conflict between the harm of pornography and the value of free speech. In its present form, this is still a shaky piece of law.

FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

The following questions are based on Ellen Goodman's pornography essay, which you have just read. Using whichever version of the essay is most helpful, prepare answers to the questions. Work either as individuals or in small groups.

1. In one or two sentences, summarize the argument supporting the Minneapolis ordinance.
2. In one or two sentences, summarize Goodman's own argument.
3. Which version of the essay, 1 or 2, did you find most useful in answering the preceding two questions?
4. Which version of the essay do you think is most effective? Why?

If you are like our own students, two-thirds of you will prefer Goodman's original version over the standard form version. However, a large majority of our students reported that the standard form version was more

useful for helping them answer the above questions. By placing the writer's thesis statement at the end of the introduction ("Unfortunately, despite the proponents' good intentions, the Minneapolis ordinance is a bad law because it has potentially dangerous consequences"), the standard form version gives you up front a clear summary of the writer's position (question 2). Similarly, by setting off the Minneapolis ordinance as the opposition and by supplying the syllogistic core of its supporting argument, the standard form version makes it easier to find and summarize the opposing view.

But even though the argument of the standard form version can be grasped more quickly, the majority of readers prefer Goodman's original version. Why is this?

What most people point to is the greater sense of complexity and surprise in the original version, a sense that comes largely from a delay in presenting the writer's own position. Whereas in the standard form version the Minneapolis ordinance is the "opposition," in the original version the ordinance isn't so identified until later, creating more reader sympathy for its argument. Because we aren't told from the start that the author will eventually oppose this ordinance, we are led to examine it more open-mindedly, not knowing for sure what judgment will finally emerge. To the extent that she sympathizes with feminist beliefs, Ellen Goodman does not wish to distance herself from those who see pornography as a violation of women's rights. Thus, in her original version the author's sympathy for the Minneapolis ordinance seems real, so real that we are surprised in the last third of the essay when she finally rejects the ordinance. By not laying out her own position at the beginning—as the standard form requires—Goodman lets us enter her own struggle to think through these issues, and her final rejection of the ordinance is made all the more powerful by her obvious sympathy for what the writers of the ordinance are proposing. Thus Goodman's decision about the arrangement of parts turns out to be a decision about how we as audience will feel about both her and her argument, choices that relate to the sense of self that she wishes to project.

It seems clear, then, that a writer's decision about when to reveal an essay's thesis and when to separate the writer's view from the opposition's has considerable importance. If the thesis is revealed early, the writer comes across as more hard-nosed, more sure of her position, more confident about how to divide the ground into friendly and hostile camps, more in control. If the thesis is delayed, the issues are made to seem more complex, the reader's sympathy for the opposition is often increased, and the writer's struggle for clarity is highlighted. Paradoxically, though, such an essay is sometimes more persuasive to opponents because they feel their own position has been generously listened to. It is obvious that the interplay between *pathos* and *ethos* is complex. By delaying her thesis, Goodman projects an image of herself (*ethos*) as sympathetic to feminism and troubled by her own position. This image of herself increases the reader's sympathy (*pathos*) for her dilemma and thus strengthens her argument.

The Ellen Goodman example reveals the kinds of complex choices writers make when they draft and revise. It is often conceptually easier to write an argument in the standard form, which works well in most rhetorical situations. Variations on this form, however, can sometimes make your argument more persuasive as well as more stylistically subtle.

CONCLUSION

In this chapter, we have explored ways that writers can strengthen the persuasiveness of their arguments by using audience-based reasons and by creating appeals to *ethos* and *pathos*. Arguments are more persuasive if they are rooted in the underlying assumptions, beliefs, and values of the intended audience. Similarly, arguments are more persuasive if readers trust the credibility of the writer and if the argument appeals to readers' hearts and imaginations as well as to their intellects. We have also seen how the placement of a writer's thesis—whether stated explicitly in the beginning or delayed until the end of the essay—can have subtle effects on the way both the argument and the writer are received.

Evidence in Argument

In the previous chapter, we examined the two basic ways that writers support their arguments: through reasons supported by evidence and through reasons supported by chains of other reasons. In this chapter we return to a discussion of evidence. Our purpose in this chapter is to help you develop strategies for finding, using, and evaluating evidence. We focus first on the various ways you can use your own personal experiences to support an argument, including research data gathered from interviews, surveys, and questionnaires. Next we discuss evidence from library research and examine the knotty problem of what to do when the experts disagree. Finally, we discuss how you can evaluate evidence in order to use it fairly, responsibly, and persuasively.

USING EVIDENCE FROM PERSONAL EXPERIENCE

Your own life can be the source of supporting evidence in many arguments. Often a story from your own life can support an important point or show your readers the human significance of your issue. Whenever you include specific, vivid evidence from personal experience, you will be reaching out to your readers, who generally empathize with the personal experiences of others. A writer's credibility is often enhanced if the reader senses the writer's personal connection to an issue.

Using Personal Experience Data

Many issues can make extensive, even exclusive, use of personal experience data. Here is how a student from a small Montana town used a personal experience to support her claim that "small rural schools provide a quality education for children."

Another advantage of small rural schools is the way they create in students a sense of identity with their communities and a sense of community pride. When children see the active support of the community toward the school, they want to return this support with their best efforts. I remember our Fergus Grade School Christmas programs. Sure, every grade school in Montana has a Christmas program, but ours seemed to be small productions. We started work on our play and songs immediately after Thanksgiving. The Fergus Community Women's Club decorated the hall a few days before the program. When the big night arrived, the whole community turned out, even Mr. and Mrs. Schoenberger, an elderly couple. I and the eleven other students were properly nervous as we performed our play, "A Charlie Brown Christmas." As a finale, the whole community sang carols and exchanged gifts. One of the fathers even dressed up as Santa Claus. Everyone involved had a warm feeling down inside when they went home.

The community bonding described in this paragraph—the father playing Santa Claus, the attendance of the elderly couple, the communal singing of Christmas carols—supports the writer's stated reason that small rural schools help students feel an identity with their communities.

Using Personal Observations

For some arguments you can gather evidence through personal observations. For example, suppose you want to argue that your city should install a traffic light at a particularly dangerous pedestrian crossing. You could draw on your past experience by relating an accident you almost had at that crossing. But even more persuasive might be some facts and statistics you could gather by observing the crossing for an hour or so on several different days. You could count numbers of vehicles, observe pedestrian behavior, take note of dangerous situations, time how long it takes to cross the street, and so forth. These could then become persuasive data for an argument.

EXAMPLE ARGUMENT USING PERSONAL OBSERVATION DATA

The intersection at 5th and Montgomery is particularly dangerous. Traffic volume on Montgomery is so heavy that pedestrians almost never find a comfortable break in the flow of cars. On April 29, I watched fifty-seven pedestrians cross this intersection. Not once did cars stop in both directions

before the pedestrian stepped off the sidewalk onto the street. Typically, the pedestrian had to move into the street, start tentatively to cross, and wait until a car finally stopped. On fifteen occasions, pedestrians had to stop halfway across the street, with cars speeding by in both directions, waiting for cars in the far lanes to stop before they could complete their crossing.

USING EVIDENCE FROM INTERVIEWS, SURVEYS, AND QUESTIONNAIRES

In addition to direct observations, you can gather evidence by conducting interviews, taking surveys, or passing out questionnaires.

Conducting Interviews

Of these methods, interviews are especially powerful sources of evidence, not only for gathering expert testimony and important data, but also for learning about opposing or alternative views. To conduct an effective interview, you need to have a clear purpose for the interview and to be professional, courteous, efficient, and prepared. Probably most interviews go wrong because the interviewer doesn't have a specific plan of questioning. Before the interview, write out the questions you intend to ask based on your purpose. (Of course, be ready to move in unexpected directions if the interview opens up new territory.) Find out as much as possible about the interviewee prior to the interview. Your knowledge of his or her background will help establish your credibility and build a bridge between you and your source. Be punctual, and remember that the interviewee is probably busy and hasn't time for small talk. Finally, in most cases it is best to present yourself as a listener seeking clarity on an issue, rather than as an advocate of a particular position. Except in rare cases, it is a mistake to enter into argument with your interviewee, or to indicate through body language or tone of voice an antagonism toward his or her position. During the interview, play the believing role. Save the doubting role for later, when you are looking over your notes.

While conducting the interview, plan either to tape it (in which case you must ask the interviewee's permission) or to take good notes. Immediately after the interview, while your memory is fresh, rewrite your notes more fully and completely.

When you use interview data in your own writing, put quotation marks around any direct quotations. Except when unusual circumstances might require anonymity, identify your source by name and indicate his or her title or credentials—whatever will convince the reader that this person's remarks are to be taken seriously. Here is how one student used interview data to support an argument against carpeting dorm rooms.

Finally, university-provided carpets will be too expensive. According to Robert Bothell, Assistant Director of Housing Services, the cost will be \$300 per room for the carpet and installation. The university would also have to purchase more vac-

uum cleaners for the students to use. Altogether, Bothell estimated the cost of carpets to be close to \$100,000 for the whole campus. [Here the student writer uses interview data from Robert Bothell as evidence that university-provided carpets will be too expensive. As Assistant Director of Housing Services, Bothell has the credentials to be an authoritative source on these costs.]

Using Surveys or Questionnaires

Still another form of field research data can come from surveys or questionnaires. Sometimes an informal poll of your classmates can supply evidence persuasive to a reader. One of our students, in an argument supporting public transportation, asked every rider on her bus one morning the following two questions:

Do you enjoy riding the bus more than commuting by car? If so, why?

She was able to use her data in the following paragraph:

Last week I polled forty-eight people riding the bus between Bellevue and Seattle. Eighty percent said they enjoyed riding the bus more than commuting by car, while 20 percent preferred the car. Those who enjoyed the bus cited the following reasons in this order of preference: It saved them the hassle of driving in traffic; it gave them time to relax and unwind; it was cheaper than paying for gas and parking; it saved them time.

More formal research can be done through developing and distributing questionnaires. Developing a good questionnaire is a complex task, so much so that social science or education majors often have to take special courses devoted to the topic. In general, problems with questionnaires arise when the questions are confusing or when response categories don't allow the respondent enough flexibility of choices. If you are writing an argument that depends on an elaborate questionnaire, consider checking out a book from your library on questionnaire design. Simple questionnaires, however, can be designed without formal training. If you use a questionnaire, type it neatly so that it looks clean, uncluttered, and easy to complete. At the head of the questionnaire you should explain its purpose. Your tone should be courteous and, if possible, you should include some motivational pitch to urge the reader to complete the questionnaire.

INEFFECTIVE EXPLANATION FOR QUESTIONNAIRE:

The following questionnaire is very important for my research. I need it back by Tuesday, January 19, so please fill it out as soon as you get it. Thanks. [doesn't explain purpose; reasons for questionnaire stated in terms of writer's needs, not audience's need]

MORE EFFECTIVE EXPLANATION

This questionnaire is aimed at improving the quality of Dickenson Library for both students and staff. It should take no more than three or four minutes of your

time and gives you an opportunity to say what you like and don't like about the present library. Of course, your responses will be kept anonymous. To enable a timely report to the library staff, please return the questionnaire by Tuesday, January 19. Thank you very much.

[purpose is clear; respondents see how filling out questionnaire may benefit them]

When distributing questionnaires, you should seek a random distribution so that any person in your target population has an equal chance of being selected. Surveys lose their persuasiveness if the respondents are biased or represent just one segment of the total population you intended to survey. For example, if you pass out your library questionnaire only to persons living in dorms, then you won't know how commuting students feel about the library.

USING EVIDENCE FROM READING: THE ART OF LIBRARY RESEARCH

Whereas you can sometimes make excellent arguments using only personal experience data, many arguments require data gathered from library research, including books, magazines, journals, newspapers, government documents, computerized data banks, specialized encyclopedias and almanacs, corporate bulletins, and so forth. How to find such data, how to incorporate it into your own writing through summary, paraphrase, and quotation, and how to cite it and document it are treated in detail in Part IV of this text (Chapters 16 and 17). Our purpose in this chapter is to examine some of the theoretical and rhetorical issues involved in selecting and using research evidence.

Seeking Clarity: Library Research as an Analysis of a Conversation

As a researcher, do you enter the library solely to support your own position on an issue (Callicles' goal of victory from Chapter 1)? Or are you seeking the fullest possible understanding of the issue (Socrates' goal of clarification)? The most responsible goal is clarification, but the process of reaching this goal often leads you into a confusing morass of conflicting evidence and testimony. Before continuing with a practical discussion of how to use research evidence, let's pause momentarily to examine this knotty problem.

Suppose you are writing an argument claiming that the United States should take immediate measures to combat global warming. Early in your search for evidence, you come across the following editorial, which appeared in *USA Today* in June 1986.

Imagine a world like this:

Omaha, Neb., sweats through the worst drought in its history. In July 2030, the mercury hits 100 on 20 days. Crops are wiped out; the Midwest is a dust bowl.

New Orleans is under water. The French Quarter has shut down; the Superdome holds a small lake. The governor says property damage will be in the billions.

Washington, D.C., suffers through its hottest summer—87 days above 90 degrees. Water is rationed; brownouts are routine because utilities can't meet demand for electricity. Federal employees, working half-days in unbearable heat, report an alarming rise in skin cancer across the USA.

Abroad, floods have inundated Bangladesh and Indonesia. The seas are four feet above 1986 levels. The United Nations reports millions will die in famines; shocking climate changes have ruined agriculture.

That sounds far-fetched, but if some scientists' worst fears come true, that could be what our children inherit.

Since the beginning of this century, man has been spewing pollutants into the atmosphere at an ever-increasing rate. Carbon dioxide and chlorofluorocarbons—CFC's—are fouling the air, our life support system. Everything that burns releases carbon dioxide. CFC's are used to make refrigerants, Styrofoam, computer chips, and other products.

In the past century, carbon dioxide in the atmosphere has risen 25 percent. The problem is that carbon dioxide holds in heat, just as the roof of a greenhouse does. That's why the Earth's warming is called the greenhouse effect.

CFC's retain heat, too, and break down the atmosphere's protective layer of ozone. If it is damaged, more of the sun's ultraviolet rays will reach Earth, causing skin cancer and damaging sea life.

Combined with the loss of forests that absorb carbon dioxide, the effects of this pollution could be disastrous. By 2030, Earth's temperature could rise 8 degrees, polar ice caps would melt, weather would change, crops would wilt.

There is growing evidence that these pollutants are reaching ominous levels. At the South Pole, the ozone layer has a "hole" in it—it's been depleted by 40 percent. NASA scientist Robert Watson says: "Global warming is inevitable—it's only a question of magnitude and time."

Some say don't panic, probably nothing will happen. The trouble with that is that we know these pollutants are building, and by the time we are sure of the worst effects, it may be too late. Action is needed, now. The USA must:

—Recognize that global warming may worsen and begin planning responses; more research is needed, too.

—Renew the search for safe, clean alternatives to fossil fuels, nuclear fission, and chlorofluorocarbons.

—Report on the extent of the problem to the world and press for international controls on air pollution.

The possible dimensions of this disaster are too big to just "wait and see." If a runaway train heads for a cliff and the engineer does nothing, the passengers are bound to get hurt. Let's check the brakes before it's too late.

When the students in one of our classes first read this editorial, they found it both persuasive and frightening. The opening scenario of potential disasters—New Orleans under water, unbearable heat, water rationing, floods, ruined agriculture, "alarming rise in skin cancer"—scared the Dickens out of many readers. The powerful effect of the opening scenario was increased by the editorial's subsequent use of scientific data: carbon dioxide has increased 25 percent, the ozone layer has been depleted by 40 percent, a

NASA scientist says that “[g]lobal warming is inevitable . . .” and so forth. Additionally, a plausible cause-and-effect chain explains the approaching disaster: the spewing of pollutants and the cutting down of forests lead to increased CO₂, which traps heat; use of CFC’s breaks down the ozone layer, allowing more ultraviolet radiation to reach earth’s surface, thereby causing cancer.

Inexperienced students writing a researched argument might be tempted to quote data from this article, which they would then cite as coming from *USA Today*. Unwittingly, they might even distort the article slightly by writing something like this:

According to *USA Today*, our civilization is on a train ride to disaster unless we put on the brakes. If global warming continues on its present course, by the year 2030, New Orleans will be under water, crops will be wiped out by droughts, . . . [and so forth].

But a second reading of this editorial begins to raise questions and doubts. First of all, the article is couched in “could’s” and “might’s.” If we read carefully, we see that the opening scenario isn’t represented as factual, inevitable, or even likely. Rather, it is represented as the “worst fears” of “some scientists.” Near the end of the editorial we learn that “[s]ome say don’t panic” but we aren’t told whether these “some” are respectable scientists, carefree politicians, crackpots, or what. But the most puzzling aspect of this editorial is the gap between the alarming worst-case scenario at the beginning of the editorial and the tepid recommendations at the end. The final “call for action” calls for no real action at all. Recommendations 1 and 3 call for more research and for “international controls on air pollution”—nicely vague terms that create little reader discomfort. The second recommendation—renew the search for safe alternatives—reveals the writer’s comfortable American optimism that scientists will find a way out of the dilemma without causing Americans any real distress. (A curious item in Recommendation 2 is the sandwiching of “nuclear fission” between “fossil fuels” and “chlorofluorocarbons.” Nuclear fission is *not* a cause of the greenhouse effect and may be a plausible alternative energy source in our effort to combat global warming. But since nuclear power poses other environmental dangers, the writer tosses it in as one of the enemies.) If the “possible dimensions of this disaster” are as great as the opening scenario leads us to believe, then perhaps wrenching changes in our economy are needed to cut down our dependence on fossil fuels.

But what is the actual truth here? How serious is the greenhouse effect and what should the United States do about it? A search for the truth involves us in the sequence of reading strategies suggested in Chapter 2, “Reading Arguments”: (1) reading as a believer; (2) reading as a doubter; (3) seeking out alternative views and asking why the various sides disagree with each other; and (4) evaluating the various positions. When our students applied this strategy to the greenhouse effect, they discovered an

unsettling uncertainty among scientists about the facts of the case combined with complex disagreements over values. In your search for clarity, what do you do when the experts disagree?

Coping with Uncertainty: When the Experts Disagree

Coping with disagreement among experts is a skill experienced arguers must develop. If there were no disagreements, of course, there would be no need for argument. It is important to realize that experts can look at the same data, can analyze the same arguments, can listen to the same authorities, and still reach different conclusions. Seldom will one expert’s argument triumph over another’s in a field of dissenting claims. More often, one expert’s argument will modify another’s and in turn will be modified by yet another. Your own expertise is not a function of your ability to choose the “right” argument, but of your ability to listen to alternative viewpoints, to understand why people disagree, and to synthesize your own argument from those disagreements.

Here briefly is our analysis of some of the disagreements about the greenhouse effect.

QUESTIONS OF FACT At the heart of the controversy is the question “How serious is the greenhouse effect?” On the basis of our own research, we discovered that scientists agree on one fact: The amount of carbon dioxide in the earth’s atmosphere has increased 7 percent since accurate measurements were first taken during the International Geophysical Year 1957/58. Additionally, scientists seem agreed that the percentage of carbon dioxide has increased steadily since the start of the Industrial Revolution in the 1860s. The statement in the *USA Today* editorial that carbon dioxide has increased by 25 percent is generally accepted by scientists as an accurate estimate of the total increase since 1860.

Where scientists disagree is on the projected effect of this increase. Predictions of global warming are derived from computer models, none of which seems able to encompass all the factors that contribute to global climate, particularly ocean currents and the movements of air masses above the oceans. Because of the enormous complexity of these factors, projections about the future differ considerably from scientist to scientist. *USA Today* took one of the worst-case projections.

QUESTIONS OF VALUE There is also widespread disagreement on what actions the United States or other countries should take in response to the potential warming of the earth. In general, these disputes stem from disagreements about value. In particular, participants in the conversation give different answers to the following questions:

1. In the face of uncertain threat, do we react as if the threat were definite or do we wait and see? If we wait and see, will we be inviting disaster?

2. How much faith can we place in science and technology? Some people, arguing that necessity is the mother of invention, assume that scientists will get us out of this mess. Others believe that technofixes are no longer possible.
3. How much change in our way of life can we tolerate? What, for example, would be the consequences to our economy and to our standard of living if we waged an all-out war on global warming by making drastic reductions, say, in our use of carbon fuels? To what extent are we willing to give up the benefits of industrialization?
4. How much economic disruption can we expect other nations to tolerate? What worldwide economic forces, for example, are making it profitable to cut down and burn tropical rain forests? What would happen to the economies of tropical countries if international controls suddenly prevented further destruction of rain forests? What changes in our own economy would have to take place?

Our whole point here is that the problem of global warming is interwoven into a gigantic web of other problems and issues. One of the benefits you gain from researching a complex technical and value-laden issue such as global warming is learning how to cope with ambiguity.

What advice can we give, therefore, when the experts disagree? Here is the strategy we tend to use. First, we try to ferret out the facts that all sides agree on. These facts give us a starting place on which to build an analysis. In the greenhouse controversy, the fact that all sides agree that the amount of CO₂ in the atmosphere has increased by 25 percent and that this amount increases the percentage of infrared radiation absorbed in the atmosphere suggests that there is scientific cause for concern.

Second, we try to determine if there is a majority position among experts. Sometimes dissenting voices stem from a small but prolific group of persons on the fringe. Our instincts are to trust the majority opinions of experts, even though we realize that revolutions in scientific thought almost always start with minority groups. In the case of the greenhouse effect, our own research suggests that the majority of scientists are cautiously concerned but not predicting doomsday. There seems to be a general consensus that increased greenhouse gases will contribute to global warming but how much and how soon, they won't say.

Third, we try as much as possible to focus, not on the testimony of experts, but on the data the experts use in their testimony. In other words, we try to learn as much as possible about the scientific or technical problem and immerse ourselves in the raw data. Doing so in the case of the greenhouse effect helped us appreciate the problems of creating computer models of global climate and especially of gathering data about oceanic impact on climate.

Finally, we try to determine our own position on the values issues at stake because, inescapably, these values influence the position we ultimately

take. For example, the authors of this text tend to be pessimistic about technofixes for most environmental problems. We doubt that scientists will solve the problem of greenhouse gases either through finding alternatives to petrocarbon fuels or by discovering ways to eliminate or counteract greenhouse gases. We also tend not to be risk-takers on environmental matters. Thus we prefer to take vigorous action now to slow the increase of greenhouse gases rather than take a wait-and-see attitude. The conclusion of our own research, then, is that the *USA Today* editorial is irresponsible in two ways: It uses unfair scare tactics in the opening scenario by overstating the fears of most scientists, yet in its conclusion it doesn't call for enough disruption of our present way of life.

What we have attempted to do in the previous section is show you how we try to reach a responsible position in the face of uncertainty. We cannot claim that our position is the right one. We can only claim that it is a reasonable one and a responsible one—responsible to our own understanding of the facts and to our own declaration of values.

WRITING YOUR OWN ARGUMENT: USING EVIDENCE PERSUASIVELY

Once you have arrived at a position on an issue, often after having written a draft that enables you to explore and clarify your own views, you need to select the best evidence possible and to use it persuasively. Whether your evidence comes from research or from personal experience, the following guidelines may be helpful.

When Possible, Select Your Data from Sources Your Reader Trusts

Other things being equal, choose data from sources you think your reader will trust. After immersing yourself in an issue, you will get a sense of who the participants in a conversation are and what their reputations tend to be. One needs to know the political biases of sources and the extent to which a source has a financial or personal investment in the outcome of a controversy. In the greenhouse controversy, for example, well-known writers Carl Sagan and Dixie Lee Ray both hold Ph.D. degrees in science, and both have national reputations for speaking out in the popular press on technical and scientific issues. Carl Sagan, however, is an environmentalist while Dixie Lee Ray tends to support business and industry. To some audiences, neither of these writers will be as persuasive as more cautious and less visible scientists who publish primarily in scientific journals. Similarly, citing a conservative magazine such as *Reader's Digest* is apt to be ineffective to liberal audiences, just as citing a Sierra Club publication would be ineffective to conservatives.

Increase Persuasiveness of Factual Data by Ensuring Recency, Representativeness, and Sufficiency

Other things being equal, choose data that are recent, representative, and sufficient. The more your data meet these criteria, the more persuasive they are.

Recency: Although some timeless issues don't depend on recent evidence, most issues, especially those related to science and technology or to current political and economic issues, depend on up-to-date information. Make sure your supporting evidence is the most recent you can find.

Representativeness: Supporting examples are more persuasive when the audience believes they are typical examples instead of extreme cases or rare occurrences. Many arguments against pornography, for example, use violent pornography or child pornography as evidence, even though these are extreme cases quite different from the erotica associated, say, with *Playboy*. These nonrepresentative examples are ineffective if one's purpose is to include such publications as *Playboy* in the category of pornography. Assuring representativeness is an especially important concern of statisticians, who seek random samples to avoid bias toward one point of view. Seeking representative examples helps you guard against selective use of data—starting with a claim and then choosing only those data that support it, instead of letting the claim grow out of a careful consideration of all the data.

Sufficiency: One of the most common reasoning fallacies, called “hasty generalization” (see Appendix 1), occurs when a person leaps to a sweeping generalization based on only one or two instances. The criterion of sufficiency (which means having enough examples to justify your point) helps you guard against hasty generalization. The key here isn't to cite every possible example, but to convince your audience that the examples you have cited don't exhaust your whole supply. In our experience, lack of sufficiency occurs frequently in personal experience arguments. The student praised earlier for her personal experience data in an argument about rural schools suffers from this problem in the following paragraph:

My primary reason for supporting the small, rural grade schools over the larger urban schools is the amount of learning that occurs. I am my own proof. I was the only member of my grade from the third to the eighth grade at Fergus Grade School. I relished the privilege of being able to work on two chapters of math, instead of one, especially if I enjoyed the subject. Upon graduation from the eighth grade, I attended a large high school and discovered that I had a better background than students from larger grade schools. I got straight A's.

The problem here is that the writer's one example—herself—isn't sufficient for supporting the claim that rural schools provide quality learning. To support that claim, she would need either more examples or statistical data about the later achievements of students who attended rural grade schools.

In Citing Evidence, Distinguish Fact from Inference or Opinion

In citing research data, you should be careful to distinguish facts from inferences or opinions. A *fact* is a noncontroversial piece of data that is verifiable through observation or through appeal to communally accepted authorities. Although the distinction between a fact and an inference is a fuzzy one philosophically, at a pragmatic level all of the following can loosely be classified as facts.

The Declaration of Independence was signed in 1776.

An earthquake took place in San Francisco on the opening day of the World Series in 1989.

The amount of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere has increased by 7 percent since 1955.

An *inference*, on the other hand, is an interpretation or explanation of the facts that may be reasonably doubted. This distinction is important because, when reading as a doubter, you often call into question a writer's inferences. If you treat these inferences as facts, you are apt to cite them as facts in your own arguments, thereby opening yourself up to easy rebuttal. For the most part, inferences should be handled as testimony rather than as fact.

WEAK:	Flohn informs us that the warming of the atmosphere will lead to damaging droughts by the year 2035. [treats Flohn's inference as a fact about global warming]
BETTER:	Flohn interprets the data pessimistically. He believes that the warming of the atmosphere will lead to damaging droughts by the year 2035. [makes it clear that Flohn's view is an inference, not a fact]

To Use Evidence Persuasively, Position It Effectively

Whenever possible, place evidence favorable to your point in rhetorically strong positions in your essay; tuck opposing evidence into rhetorically inconspicuous places. Consider the case of Professor Nutt, who was asked to write a letter of recommendation for Elliot Weasel for a management trainee position at a bank. Professor Nutt remembered Weasel with mixed emotions. On the one hand, Weasel was the most brilliant student Nutt had ever had in class—an excellent mathematical mind, creative imagination, strong writing skills. On the other hand, Weasel was slovenly, rude, irresponsible, and moody. In the first case below, Nutt decides to give Weasel a positive recommendation.

POSITIVE RECOMMENDATION FOR WEASEL

Although Elliot Weasel was somewhat temperamental in my class and occasionally lacked people skills, these problems were the result of brilliance. I am convinced that Weasel is one of the most highly intelligent students I have ever encountered. In fact, in one of my business management classes, he wrote the best term paper I have ever received in five years of teaching management. I gave him an A+ and even learned some new insights from his paper. If he could learn to interact more effectively with others, he would become a superb manager. In sum, I give him a quite high recommendation.

In the next case, Nutt's recommendation is negative.

NEGATIVE RECOMMENDATION FOR WEASEL

Although Elliott Weasel is one of the most intelligent students I have ever encountered, he was somewhat temperamental in my class and occasionally lacked people skills. He would come to class dressed sloppily with unkempt hair and dirty-looking clothes. He also seemed like a loner, was frequently moody, and once refused to participate in a group project. Thus my recommendation of him is mixed. He's highly intelligent and an excellent writer, but I found him rude and hard to like.

Let's analyze the difference between these versions. In the first version, Nutt places the anti-Weasel data in subordinate clauses and phrases and places the pro-Weasel data in main slots, particularly the main clause of the first sentence. The effect is to highlight Weasel's strong points. Because the opening sentence ends with an emphasis on Weasel's brilliance, Nutt brings in additional data to back up the assertion that Weasel is brilliant.

In the second version, Nutt reverses this procedure by putting pro-Weasel data in subordinate positions and highlighting the anti-Weasel data in main clauses. Because the opening sentence ends with an emphasis on Weasel's moodiness and lack of people skills, Nutt brings in additional data to back up these points. Thus through selection of data (deciding which facts to put in and which ones to leave out) and through loading of data into main or subordinate slots in the paragraph, Nutt creates a positive impression in the first version and a negative impression in the second. Although neither version could be regarded as untruthful, neither version tells the "whole truth" either, because the necessity to interpret the data means commitment toward some sort of claim, which necessarily shapes the selection and placement of evidence.

|| FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

Suppose that you developed a questionnaire to ascertain students' satisfaction with your college library as a place to study. Suppose further that you got the following responses to one of your questions (numbers in brackets indicate percentage of total respondents who checked each response):

The library provides a quiet place to study.

Strongly agree (10%)

Agree (40%)

Undecided (5%)

Disagree (35%)

Strongly disagree (10%)

Without telling any lies of fact, you can report these data so that they place the current library atmosphere in either favorable or unfavorable light. Working individually or in small groups, use the above data to complete the following sentences:

There seemed to be considerable satisfaction with the library as a quiet place to study. In response to our questionnaire . . . [complete this sentence by selecting data from the above responses].

Students seem dissatisfied with the noise level of the library. In response to our questionnaire . . . [complete this sentence by selecting data from the above responses].

CONCLUSION

Supporting your reasons with evidence or chains of other reasons is essential if you hope to make your arguments persuasive. As we have seen, evidence includes facts, examples, statistics, testimony, and other forms of data, and it can come from personal experience as well as from reading and research. For many issues, your search for evidence leads you into an ambiguous arena of conflicting views. Adapting to a world where experts disagree requires strategies for sorting out the causes of disagreement and establishing reasonable grounds to justify the claims you finally wish to assert. Learning how to evaluate evidence in your sources and how to use evidence responsibly and persuasively is an important skill that develops gradually. We hope this chapter gives you some helpful groundwork on which to build.

In the next chapters we will consider further strategies for making your arguments as persuasive as possible by turning our attention increasingly toward audience.

Accommodating Your Audience: Treating Opposing Views

In the previous chapter we discussed ways of moving your audience through audience-based reasons and appeals to *pathos* and *ethos*. In this chapter we are concerned with how a writer treats opposing views in a finished product—whether to ignore opposing views, to summarize and refute them, to concede to their strengths, or to seek compromise and conciliation. These choices are determined in part by the stance you wish to take toward your audience and by how you want that audience to perceive you.

OPENING EXERCISE: A CONTROVERSY IN FIRST-YEAR COMPOSITION

As an introduction to these concerns, consider the following case study, which we will refer to occasionally for illustration throughout this chapter.

SHOULD TEAM WRITING BE REQUIRED IN A FIRST-YEAR COMPOSITION COURSE?

A heated controversy recently occurred in the composition program at University X. As an experiment, instructors for several sections of first-year composition asked their students to write a “team” or group proposal argument (written by five-person teams) that offered a solution for a campus problem chosen by each team. Each student’s grade for the project was based on the quality of the final team product adjusted upward or downward according to each student’s individual contributions to the team effort.

Several teachers in the experiment, enthusiastic about the success of this assignment, proposed to the Composition Committee that a similar team-writing experience be required in all sections of first-year composition. To no one’s surprise, this proposal turned out to be controversial with both students and instructors writing letters to the committee supporting or opposing the proposal.

Based on your initial reaction, what position would you take on this controversy?

INITIAL OPINION SURVEY

1. Would you support or oppose a requirement that first-year composition students write one of their formal essays as a group or team?
2. Do you believe that team writing an essay would be a valuable learning experience for you?
3. Explain briefly the primary reasons for your choices.

Now that you know something of the background of this issue and have made your own initial judgment, please read the following two versions of a teacher’s letter to the Composition Committee supporting the team-writing proposal. Which of the two versions of the letter do you think is more effective?

VERSION 1

I urge the Composition Committee to approve the proposal that team-writing be required in first-year composition courses. As a teacher in the experimental program, I have required a team-writing assignment for the last three semesters with very positive results. Let me highlight briefly my reasons for supporting this proposal.

First, the team-writing assignment promotes true active learning. I was impressed by my students’ ability to identify and analyze a problem on campus, imagine alternative solutions, and then propose and justify their chosen solution to the problem. The group discussions revealed a high level of critical thinking and creativity. Students’ views evolved as they did research and gathered data, listened to their teammates’ ideas, argued for their own positions, and negotiated differences. No other assignment that I have ever given in composition created such effective group dynamics.

The group work also taught students a lot about writing—especially about revision, editing, and style. Acting alternately as drafters and revisers, the students had to make all the parts of the proposal fit together with unity of structure and consistency in voice and style. When team members are responsible for revising a draft written by another team member, they learn to find and fix problems that they might otherwise overlook in their own drafts. Largely because the process was effective, the final products were excellent. Some of their proposals were so good that I have urged the groups to submit them to appropriate university offices.

Additionally, team writing simulates the kind of writing students will do in professional life. Team writing has long been common in science and engineering, and is increasingly common in the business world, where reports and proposals are typically written by teams. By teaching students to function in a group environment, the team-writing experience imparts an essential career skill.

Finally, from a teacher's perspective, the team-writing assignment gives instructors a breathing space in the semester when they can schedule more student conferences and provide more individual help. Relieved from a heavy paper-grading load during the team-writing unit, I worked with students on revisions of earlier assignments and gave other kinds of individualized help.

For these reasons, I strongly urge you to make a team-writing experience a required part of our first-year composition courses. If you would like to discuss these ideas with me personally or would like to see examples of work produced by my student groups, please contact me at xxxx.

Sincerely,
Professor _____ Jones

VERSION 2

Despite real difficulties associated with team-writing assignments, I urge the composition committee to approve the proposal that team writing be required in first-year composition courses. As a teacher in the program, I have required a team-writing assignment for the last three semesters. Although I have had my share of difficulties in requiring team writing, the positive benefits of the assignment outweigh the costs.

Let me begin, though, by acknowledging the problem areas. Teachers and students who dislike team writing point with justification to such problems as dysfunctional groups, unequal sharing of work, group difficulties in scheduling out-of-class meetings, personality conflicts, willingness of weak writers to let the good writers do the work, and the very knotty problem of assigning grades equitably. I know these problems well. Last semester one of my students became so angry at her group that she stormed out of the classroom, telling me in the hall that she would drop the class before she would return to her group. Students are so used to working individually rather than together that the strain on the teacher of trying to help them function as a team can be overwhelming.

Despite these problems, I still enthusiastically support a required team-writing experience for first-year students. Here are my reasons.

First, the team-writing assignment promotes true active learning. I was impressed by my students' ability to identify and analyze a problem on campus, imagine alternative solutions, and then propose and justify their chosen solution to the problem. With only a few exceptions, the group conversations during this project—even among groups that didn't seem to be working well together—showed a high level of critical thinking and creativity. Students' views evolved as they listened to their team-mates' ideas, did research and gathered data, argued for their own positions, and negotiated differences. No other assignment that I have ever given in composition created such effective group dynamics.

The group work also taught students a lot about writing—especially about revision, editing, and style. Acting alternately as drafters and revisers, the students had to make all the parts of the proposal fit together with unity of structure and consistency in voice and style. When team members are responsible for revising a draft written by another team member, they learn to find and fix problems that they might otherwise overlook in their own drafts. Largely because the

process was effective, the final products were excellent. Some of their proposals were so good that I have urged the groups to submit them to appropriate university offices.

Additionally, team writing simulates the kind of writing students will do in professional life. Team writing has long been common in science and engineering, and is increasingly common in the business world, where reports and proposals are typically written by teams. Even the dysfunctional groups benefit from this aspect of team writing. They learn—perhaps the hard way—that professional working groups, unlike friendship groups, require goal orientation, dutiful work habits, and effective cooperation. By teaching students how to work productively in groups, we are imparting an essential career skill.

Finally, from a teacher's perspective, the team-writing assignment gives instructors a breathing space in the semester when they can schedule more student conferences and provide more individual help. Relieved from a heavy paper-grading load, I worked with students on revisions of earlier assignments and gave other kinds of individualized help that would otherwise be impossible.

For these reasons, I strongly urge you to make a team-writing experience a required part of our first-year composition courses. If you would like to discuss these ideas with me personally or would like to see examples of work produced by my student groups, please contact me at xxxx.

Sincerely,
Professor _____ Jones

SECOND OPINION SURVEY

1. Which version do you find most persuasive?
2. Which version do you think the author should submit to the Composition Committee?

FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. Working in small groups, describe the main differences between the two versions and compare notes on which version you find most persuasive.
2. Take a class poll on the numbers of persons who prefer each of the versions.
3. What relationship do you find, if any, between a person's initial position on the team-writing issue and that person's preference for Version 1 or Version 2 as most persuasive?

ONE-SIDED VERSUS TWO-SIDED ARGUMENTS

The previous exercise introduces you to the differences between one- and two-sided arguments. Version 1 is a one-sided argument. It presents only a positive view of team writing, without attempting to look at an opposing perspective. Version 2, on the other hand, is a two-sided argument. It still supports team writing, but at various places summarizes the objections that adversaries might raise.

Which version is more effective rhetorically? That is, which is apt to be more persuasive to an audience?

According to some researchers, if people already agree with a writer's thesis, they usually find one-sided arguments more persuasive. A two-sided argument appears wishy-washy and makes the writer seem less decisive. On the other hand, if people initially disagree with a writer's thesis, a two-sided argument often seems more persuasive because it shows that the writer has listened to the other side and thus seems more open-minded and fair.

An especially interesting effect has been documented for neutral audiences. In the short run, one-sided arguments seem more persuasive to neutral audiences, but in the long run two-sided arguments seem to have more staying power. Neutral audiences who've heard only one side of an issue tend to be easily swayed to the other side when they hear opposing arguments. By anticipating and in some cases refuting opposing views, the two-sided argument diminishes the surprise and force of subsequent counterarguments and also exposes their weaknesses.

Now that you've heard from the researchers, go back and examine the results of your own little experiment. Do they bear out the experts' findings? If not, why not?

BEGINNING A TWO-SIDED ARGUMENT: SUMMARIZING OPPOSING VIEWS

An effective two-sided argument usually begins with a fair summary of an opposing view. (By "two sides" we mean your position versus one or more positions opposing yours. Often you might need to summarize several different opposing views.) When you summarize opposing views, your own credibility is enhanced if you follow the "principle of charity." This principle obliges you to make your opponents' best case, avoiding loaded or biased summaries or "strawman" summaries, which oversimplify opposing arguments, making them easy to knock over.

Consider the differences among the following summaries of the argument supporting team writing. In the following hypothetical cases, the writer, who opposes the team-writing proposal, attempts to summarize the views of our earlier letter writer, whom we have called Professor Jones. The following passages illustrate fair and unfair ways for this writer to summarize Jones' views.

UNFAIR SUMMARY—LOADED LANGUAGE

Professor Jones is too caught up in recent educational fads to see the damage she is causing. All her jargon about "active learning," "critical thinking," "group processes," etc. is just a coverup for her failure to stand in front of the class and teach. She pretends to believe that group-writing produces better thinking and prepares students for the world of work. Oh, sure. Her real motivation is obviously to get out of grading papers and to take a week off from preparing classes.

Although this summary shows an opposing view, it doesn't effectively enter into that view. Through sarcasm and ridicule, the writer reveals a bias that prevents him from seeing the issue from a contrary perspective.

UNFAIR SUMMARY—STRAWMAN

Professor Jones supports team-writing primarily because it reduces her paper-grading load. She also claims that a single team-writing experience will lead to sudden improvements in thinking skills and to enhanced career success.

Although less sarcastic than the loaded-language version, this passage both distorts and oversimplifies Jones' position. First, it misrepresents Jones' reason for liking the reduced paper-grading feature of team writing. It also exaggerates and hence oversimplifies Jones' claims about the value of team writing to teach critical thinking and enhance career success. Through distortion and oversimplification, the writer sets up a strawman that is easier to knock down than is Jones' original argument.

FAIR SUMMARY—FOLLOWS THE PRINCIPLE OF CHARITY

Professor Jones presents four main reasons for supporting team writing. First, she argues that team writing promotes active learning and teaches critical thinking; second, it helps students learn revising skills, which in turn leads to better written papers; third, she believes that team writing prepares students for the kind of writing environment that prevails in the world of work; fourth, she argues that the time saved in paper grading can be converted profitably to time helping individuals.

This version role-plays the opposing view, trying to state its argument fairly and accurately.

FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

Suppose that you wanted to refute Sandra's argument (pp. 75-77) that the Ayalas were not morally justified in conceiving a baby to save their elder daughter from death by leukemia. Working individually or in groups, prepare three different summaries of Sandra's views as follows:

1. unfair summary using loaded language
2. unfair strawman summary
3. fair summary following the principle of charity.

When you are finished, be prepared to read your summaries aloud to the class as a whole.

Once writers have summarized an opposing view, they can respond to it using one of several strategies: (1) a combative rebuttal strategy; (2) a more moderate concession strategy; or (3) a conciliatory or Rogerian strategy, which eschews combativeness in favor of synthesis and reconciliation.

RESPONSE STRATEGY 1: REBUTTAL OF OPPOSING VIEWS

When rebutting or refuting an argument, you attempt to convince readers that an opposing view is logically flawed, erroneously supported, or in some other way much weaker than the opponent claims.

Using the Toulmin Schema to Find a Strategy for Rebuttal

In planning a rebuttal, the most important principle to keep in mind is that for any given line of reasoning you can attack (1) the writer's stated reason and grounds, or (2) the writer's warrant and backing, or (3) both. Put in common language, you can attack an adversary's reasons and evidence or his underlying assumptions.

Let's illustrate this strategy by continuing with our case study about team writing. Let's assume that you oppose the team-writing requirement and that you want to refute Professor Jones' arguments. For the purposes of this illustration, we focus on Jones' third reason, which can be summarized into a single enthymeme as follows:

PROFESSOR JONES' ENTHYME: Team writing should be required in our first-year composition course because this experience prepares students for the team-writing environment of the work world.

Placed in the Toulmin schema, Jones' argument is as follows:

CLAIM:	Team writing should be required in our first-year composition course.
STATED REASON:	because this experience prepares students for the team-writing environment of the work world
GROUND:	evidence that team writing is common in the work world (statistical evidence of the frequency of team writing in the work world; examples of team writing; testimony from people in business and industry that team writing is common, etc.); also evidence that the assignment actually teaches students to do this kind of writing (evidence that group interaction in the freshman classroom in some way approximates group interaction in a business setting)
WARRANT:	<i>Narrowly:</i> An assignment that prepares students for the team-writing environment of the work world should be one of the requirements of first-year composition. <i>More broadly:</i> We should use educational practices that prepare students to function effectively in the work world.
BACKING:	arguments showing the centrality and importance of preparing students for the business world; arguments showing the pedagogical value of career-oriented assignments (increased student motivation, etc.); arguments showing the importance of measuring academic success by work success.

The above list has the major elements of the Toulmin schema, except for the conditions of rebuttal, which we will consider in a moment. Before looking at effective strategies for rebutting the above argument, let's look at a typical example of an ineffective rebuttal, which simply asserts disagreement while bringing in irrelevant arguments and evidence.

INEFFECTIVE REBUTTAL

Professor Jones wrongly claims that writing team essays prepares students for the world of work. The assignment is so stupid it wouldn't prepare anybody to do anything. It just wastes everyone's time. Our group just sat around shooting the bull. I even took a poll of my fellow classmates, and three out of four said that the assignment didn't improve their writing at all.

This rebuttal is ineffective because the writer simply asserts his opinion while failing to say why the assignment is "stupid." The fact that his group "just sat around shooting the bull" would be more effective evidence if we knew how many other groups were similarly disengaged. Finally, the cited poll supports only the point "Many students felt the assignment didn't help their writing." The poll failed to ask whether team writing would help students in the world of work.

To refute this argument more effectively, the writer can return to the Toulmin schema to consider the conditions of rebuttal, which are a series of "unless" statements that identify cases or situations that lessen the force of the reasons and grounds, or warrant and backing. Pretending to be "opposing counsel," the writer might come up with a list like this:

CONDITIONS OF REBUTTAL:	<i>Rebutting the reason and grounds:</i> This reason is a good one unless team writing is not common in the work world; unless the college team-writing situation is so different from the work team-writing situation that the former doesn't prepare you for the latter. <i>Rebutting the warrant and backing:</i> unless learning to function in a team-writing environment isn't as important as other skills for career success; unless career-oriented assignments shouldn't be stressed in first-year composition.
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What follows are examples of how each of these conditions of rebuttal might be expanded into an argument rebutting Professor Jones' original line of reasoning:

REBUTTAL STRATEGY 1: TEAM WRITING IS NOT COMMON IN THE WORK WORLD

Professor Jones claims that team writing prepares students for careers by simulating work-world writing conditions. Jones' argument depends on our accepting as "fact" this teacher's assertion that team writing is common in the world of work. I don't believe it is. I am majoring in elementary education and decided to take a survey of present elementary teachers. I interviewed a dozen teachers at Irving and Longfellow grade schools, and none of them has ever written a team paper nor even heard of anyone else writing a team paper. Thus, for my profession at least, team writing doesn't seem common at all. Unless supporters of the team-writing requirement could demonstrate that at least half of this class could really expect to do frequent team writing in their careers, this assignment is not worth the time and trouble.

This rebuttal strategy casts doubt on Jones' stated reason and grounds—namely, her claim that team writing is common in the world of work. If team writing is rare in the world of work, then an exercise to give students that skill is irrelevant. The writer doesn't claim that team-writing is not com-

mon in the work world in general, only that it is not common in her chosen field of elementary teaching, as based on her survey. This use of evidence, although limited, places the burden of proof back on supporters of the proposal.

REBUTTAL STRATEGY 2: COLLEGE TEAM-WRITING CONDITIONS DIFFERENT FROM WORK CONDITIONS

Professor Jones says that writing team essays simulates writing conditions in the world of work and therefore prepares students for careers. I agree with her that team writing occurs frequently in the world of work. I also accept her assumption that assignments that prepare us for the world of work are valuable. However, the circumstances under which we do team writing in first-year composition are so different from the circumstances under which scientists or business people do team writing that the one doesn't prepare you for the other. In the business world people have common goals, common interests, and flexible enough time schedules to permit successful team meetings. They have an intrinsic interest in succeeding as a team. In our class, however, the teams are entirely artificial. Some of us care about this class; some of us don't. Some of us want to get A's; some of us will be happy with C's. Nobody in our group has intrinsic interest in our team-writing project. We're motivated only by grades, not by common interests or professional goals. Moreover, our inflexible schedules make scheduling out-of-class team meetings nearly impossible. This situation makes us dislike team writing and leads to bickering and ineffective cooperation. First-year composition courses cannot teach students how to do successful team writing for the world of work unless they can create the kind of environment that occurs in the world of work. That certainly didn't happen in my class.

This strategy accepts Professor Jones' warrant ("An assignment that prepares students for the team-writing environment of the work world is valuable") and also the assumption on which the stated reason is based ("Team writing is common in the world of work"). This writer's approach is to attack the stated reason from another direction by showing that group processes in first-year composition are not comparable to group processes in a real work situation and thus that the team-writing assignment never achieves its goal of teaching valuable work skills.

REBUTTAL STRATEGY 3: OTHER SKILLS MORE VALUABLE THAN TEAM-WRITING SKILLS

Professor Jones claims that writing team essays is valuable because team essays simulate workplace writing conditions and thus prepare students for careers. I concede that a lot of work-related writing is done in teams and that team practice in first-year composition will probably be of some help in later life. However, I do not accept Jones' assumption that college writing ought to simulate workplace writing or that team essays are the surest preparation for career success. Instead of team essays, first-year composition should teach basic writing skills. When I asked several business people what bothered them most about their employees' writing, not one complained that they didn't know how to write in groups. Rather, they complained about employees who didn't know how to spell or punctuate or write short clear sentences or compose a simple memo. When so many students enter the work force lacking the basics, it's hard to justify spending four class meetings on team writing. Perhaps English teachers could teach

team writing in an advanced course in business communication. But in first-year composition they should spend that valuable time on the basics. Our class hasn't spent nearly enough time reviewing punctuation or studying editing skills. Instructors should teach us to walk before we take on some strange kind of dance movement like team writing.

This too is an effective rebuttal, but it takes a much different tack. This writer accepts Jones' reason and grounds, but attacks her warrant ("An assignment that prepares students for the team-writing environment of the work world should be one of the requirements for first-year composition"). Thus, the writer agrees that team writing is common in the world of work and that team writing in college may help students learn to do team writing in the work world. What this writer attacks instead is the value of preparing students for a team-writing environment. The writer argues that team writing is far less important than basic skills to career success.

REBUTTAL STRATEGY 4: CAREER-ORIENTED ASSIGNMENTS SHOULDN'T BE STRESSED IN FIRST-YEAR COMPOSITION

Professor Jones claims that writing team essays is valuable because team essays simulate workplace writing conditions and thus prepare students for careers. I concede that a lot of work-related writing is done in teams and that team practice in first-year composition will probably be of some help in later life. However, I do not accept Jones' assumption that college writing ought to simulate workplace writing or that the function of academics is to prepare students for careers. In recent years, this pervasive focus on practicality and careerism has all but destroyed the liberal arts. Students will have their whole lives to learn how to do workplace writing but only a few precious undergraduate years to immerse themselves in the great traditions of thought which characterize world cultures. Writing assignments for first-year composition ought to be based on academic reading, particularly reading that deepens students' engagement with the liberal arts tradition. Save team-writing for specialized courses later in a student's career.

This approach, which opposes the whole idea of career-oriented undergraduate education, attacks Professor Jones' warrant and backing at its most general level. It questions Jones' underlying assumption that preparing students for careers is an important undergraduate goal, positing instead the value of the traditional liberal arts.

FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

Complete each of the following enthymemes by supplying the warrant. Then invent plausible grounds and backing for the argument. Finally, consider conditions for rebuttal by suggesting ways to attack the reason and grounds, or the warrant and backing, or both.

1. Writing courses should be pass/fail because the pass/fail system encourages more creativity.
2. The state should require persons to wear seatbelts because wearing seatbelts saves lives.

3. Majoring in engineering is better than majoring in music because engineers make more money than musicians.
4. Don't elect Sam as committee chair because he is too bossy.
5. The endangered species law is too stringent because it seriously hampers the economy.

Using the Toulmin schema helps you see a variety of strategies for rebutting an argument. Frequently rebuttals occur at the level of grounds or backing, where you attempt to refute an opposing argument's use of evidence. The next section deals specifically with rebutting evidence.

Ways to Rebut Evidence

Among the most common ways to refute an argument is to find weaknesses in the opponent's use of evidence. Here are some strategies that you can use:

Deny the Facticity of the Data

Generally a piece of data can be considered a fact when a variety of observers all agree that the datum corresponds with reality. Often, though, what one writer considers a "fact," another may consider an "interpretation" or simply a case of wrong information. If you have reason to doubt your opponent's facts, then call them into question. Thus, if your opponent claims that elementary teachers don't do team writing, you might point to a jointly written committee report or grant proposal recently completed at a local elementary school.

Cite Counterexamples or Countertestimony

One of the most effective ways to counter an argument based on examples is to cite a counterexample. If your opponent argues that women are more people-conscious than men, several counterexamples of cold, impersonal women or of kindly, warm-hearted men can cast doubt on the whole claim. The effect of counterexamples is to deny the conclusiveness of the original data. Similarly, citing an authority whose testimony counters other expert testimony is a good way to begin refuting an argument based on testimony.

Cast Doubt on the Representativeness or Sufficiency of Examples

Examples are powerful only if the audience feels them to be representative and sufficient. If your opponent argues that pool players are true athletes because they excel at many other sports, not just pool, and then cites as an example a local pool player who is also a varsity track star, you could argue that the mentioned player is not typical of all pool players. You could demand that the opponent provide evidence based on a wide sampling of

pool players. To conclude your rebuttal, you might cite examples of one or two pool players who were klutzes at other sports.

Cast Doubt on the Relevance or Recency of the Examples, Statistics, or Testimony

The best evidence is up-to-date. In a rapidly changing universe, data that are even a few years out of date are often ineffective. If your opponent uses demographic data to argue that your community doesn't need a new nursing home, you could raise questions about the recency of the data, arguing that the percentage of elderly has increased since the time the data were collected. Another problem with data is their occasional lack of relevance. For example, in arguing that an adequate ozone layer is necessary for preventing skin cancers, it is not relevant to cite statistics on the alarming rise of lung cancers.

Call Into Question the Credibility of an Authority

One trick of sophistry is to have an authority within one field speak out on issues in a different field. Modern advertising regularly uses this kind of sleight-of-hand whenever movie stars or athletes endorse products about which they have no expertise. The problem of credibility is trickier when an apparent authority has no particular expertise in a specific subfield within the discipline. For example, a psychologist specializing in the appetite mechanisms of monkeys might not be an expert witness on schizophrenic behavior in humans, even though a writer could cite that person as a Ph.D. in psychology. Thus, if you can attack the credibility of the authority, you can sometimes undermine the effectiveness of the testimony. (This procedure is different from the *ad hominem* fallacy discussed in Appendix 1 because it doesn't attack the personal character of the authority but only the authority's expertise on a specific matter.)

Question the Accuracy or Context of Quotations

Frequently evidence based on testimony is distorted by being either misquoted or taken out of context. Often scientists will qualify their findings heavily, but these qualifications will be omitted when their research is reported by the popular media. You can thus attack the use of a quotation by putting it in its original context or by restoring the qualifications accompanying the quotation in its original source.

Question the Way Statistical Data Were Produced or Interpreted

Appendix 2 provides fuller treatment of how to refute statistics. At this point, however, you should appreciate that you can attack your opponent's statistical evidence by calling into account how the data were gathered, treated mathematically, or interpreted. It can make a big difference, for example, whether you cite raw numbers or percentages or whether you choose large or small increments for the axes of graphs.

Anticipating Adversarial Views throughout Your Essay

Although good writers will often devote a specific section of an essay to refutation, they don't ignore adversarial views in the rest of the essay. They will often refer to opposing views even while presenting their own side of the argument. When you draft your essay, try to imagine yourself in a conversation with a reader who has just listened to an opposing view and is weighing its merits against those of your argument. Imagine watching his or her facial expressions as you make your case. At controversial points in your argument, picture your reader recalling an opposing point of view, frowning, giving a shake of the head, and starting to interrupt, "Yes, but . . ." Your job as a writer is to anticipate those "Yes, but . . ." moments and let your imaginary reader make an opposing case briefly before you go on. The ability to work these opposing views into your arguments gracefully is one hallmark of a skilled writer.

RESPONSE STRATEGY 2: CONCESSION TO OPPOSING VIEWS

Sometimes you encounter portions of an argument that you simply can't refute. For example, if you support the legalization of drugs, adversaries invariably cite alarming statistics enumerating large increases in drug users and addicts that will result from legalization. You might dispute the size of their numbers, but you reluctantly agree that legalization will increase drug use and hence addiction. Your strategy in this case is not to refute the opponent's argument, but to concede to it by admitting that legalization of hard drugs will promote heroin and cocaine addiction. Having made that concession, your task is then to show that the benefits of drug legalization still outweigh the costs you've just conceded.

As this example shows, the strategy of a concession argument is to switch from the field of values employed by your adversaries to a different field of values more favorable to your position. Whereas your opponent opposes legalization because of criterion A (alarming increase in numbers of users and addicts), you support it because of criteria B, C, and D (eliminating the black market in drugs, ending the crime and violence associated with procurement of drugs, thus freeing the police to deal with violent crime, and so forth). To put it another way, in a concession argument you don't try to refute your opponent's stated reason and grounds (by arguing that legalization will *not* lead to increased drug usage and addiction), nor do you directly attack your opponent's warrant (by arguing that increased drug use and addiction are *not* bad). Rather you shift the argument to a new field of values by introducing a new warrant, one that you think your audience can share (eliminating the black market is good). To the extent that opponents of legalization share your desire to stop drug-related crime, shifting to this new field of values is a good strategy. Although it may seem that you weaken your own position by conceding to your opponent's argu-

ment, you may actually strengthen it by increasing your credibility and gaining your audience's goodwill. Moreover, conceding to one part of an opponent's argument doesn't mean that you won't refute other parts of that argument.

A good illustration of the concession strategy is Version 2 of the team-writing argument (pp. 168–69). The writer does not try to refute the argument against team writing. She concedes that a team-writing assignment can create a bundle of headaches for teachers, including dysfunctional groups, inequities in grading, and so forth. Rather, her strategy is to shift from the opponents' field of values (teacher comfort, ease of grading, reduction of hassles) to a different field of values (active learning, gaining an important career skill, extra time for teachers to schedule conferences). By conceding to the opponents' argument, the writer achieves a fair-minded *ethos* that may be more persuasive than a combative *ethos*.

RESPONSE STRATEGY 3: CONCILIATORY OR ROGERIAN APPROACH TO OPPOSING VIEWS

A third way to deal with opposing views is to take a conciliatory approach, often referred to as *Rogerian argument*. Rogerian argument was developed by psychologist Carl Rogers to help people resolve differences.* It emphasizes "empathic listening," which Rogers defined as the ability to see an issue sympathetically from another person's perspective. He trained people to withhold judgment of another person's ideas until after they listened attentively to the other person, understood that person's reasoning, appreciated that person's values, respected that person's humanity—in short, walked in that person's shoes. Before disagreeing with another person, Rogers would tell his clients, you must be able to summarize that person's argument so accurately that he or she will say, "Yes, you understand my position."

What Carl Rogers understood is that traditional methods of argumentation are threatening. When you try to persuade people to change their minds on an issue, Rogers claimed, you are actually demanding a change in their worldviews—to get other people, in a sense, to quit being their kind of person and start being your kind of person. Research psychologists have shown that persons are often not swayed by a logical argument if it somehow threatens their own view of the world. Carl Rogers was therefore interested in finding ways to make arguments less threatening. In Rogerian argument the writer typically waits until the end of the essay to present his position, and that position is often a compromise between the writer's

* See Carl Rogers' essay "Communication: Its Blocking and Its Facilitation" in his book *On Becoming a Person* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1961), pp. 329–337. For a fuller discussion of Rogerian argument see Richard Young, Alton Becker, and Kenneth Pike, *Rhetoric: Discovery and Change* (New York: Harcourt Brace, 1972).

original views and those of the opposition. Because Rogerian argument stresses the psychological as well as logical dimensions of argument, and because it emphasizes reducing threat and building bridges rather than winning an argument, it is particularly effective when dealing with emotionally laden issues.

Under Rogerian strategy, the writer reduces the sense of threat to the opposition by showing that *both writer and opponent share many basic values*. Instead of attacking the opponent as wrong-headed, the Rogerian writer respects the opponent's intelligence and demonstrates an understanding of the opponent's position before presenting his or her position. Finally, the Rogerian writer never asks an opponent to capitulate entirely to the writer's side—just to shift somewhat toward the writer's views. By acknowledging that he or she has already shifted toward the opponent's views, the writer makes it easier for an opponent to accept compromise. All of this negotiation ideally leads to a compromise between—or better, a synthesis of—the opposing positions. (A compromise is a middle ground that neither party particularly likes; a synthesis is a new position that both parties like at least as well as their original positions.)

The key to successful Rogerian argument, besides the art of listening, is the ability to point out areas of agreement between the opposing positions. For example, if you support a woman's right to choose abortion and you are arguing with someone completely opposed to abortion, you're unlikely to convert your opponent but you might soften his or her opposition to pro-choice supporters. You begin this process by summarizing your opponent's position sympathetically, stressing your shared values. You might say, for example, that you also value children; that you also are appalled by people who treat abortion as a form of birth control; that you also worry that the easy acceptance of abortion diminishes the value society places on life; and that you also agree that accepting abortion lightly can lead to lack of sexual responsibility. Building bridges like these between you and your opponents makes it more likely that they will meet you halfway when you present arguments that threaten their values.

In its emphasis on establishing common ground, Rogerian argument has much in common with recent feminist theories of argument. Many feminists criticize traditional arguments for being rooted in a male value system and tainted by metaphors of war and combat (such as use of the word "opponent"). Thus, traditional arguments are typically praised for being "powerful," "forceful," or "disarming." The writer "defends" his position and "attacks" his opponent's position using facts and data as "ammunition" and reason as "big guns" to "blow away" his opponent's claim. Throughout this text, our own frequent use of the word "opponent" or "adversary" implicates us in a worldview in which people are divided into opposing camps. According to some feminists, such views can lead to inauthenticity, posturing, and game-playing. The traditional school debate—defined in one of our desk dictionaries as "a formal contest of argumentation in which two opposing teams defend and attack a given proposition"—treats argu-

ment as verbal jousting, more concerned to determine a winner than to clarify an issue.

One of our woman students, who excelled as a debater in high school and received straight A's in argument classes, recently explained in an essay her growing alienation from traditional male rhetoric. "Although women students are just as likely to excel in 'male' writing . . . , we are less likely to feel as if we were saying something authentic and true." Later in this same paper the student elaborated on her distrust of "persuasion":

What many writing teachers have told me is that "the most important writing/ speaking you will ever do will be to persuade someone." My experience as a person who has great difficulty naming and expressing emotions is that the most important communication in my life is far more likely to be simply telling someone how I feel. To say "I love you," or "I'm angry with you," will be far more valuable in most relationship contexts than to say "These are the three reasons why you shouldn't have done what you did. . . ."

Writers who share this woman's distrust of traditional argumentation often find Rogerian argument appealing because it stresses clarification and accommodation rather than winning, and because it begins with self-examination rather than refutation. Rogerian argument is more in tune with win/win negotiation than with win/lose debate.

To illustrate a conciliatory or Rogerian approach to an issue, let's return to the team-writing controversy. From a Rogerian perspective, the English department's disagreement over team-writing is only a surface manifestation of deeper differences. Using Rogerian listening, supporters of the team-writing proposal would perceive how this issue awakens fears in many of their colleagues and threatens their values. A Rogerian writer listening carefully to her audience might realize that the disagreement over team writing is a symptom of more complex disagreements. Having considered empathically the views of her colleagues who oppose the team-writing proposal, a teacher might use a Rogerian strategy to compose an argument like the following:

An Open Letter to the English Department

The controversy over the team-writing proposal is becoming divisive in the department. I am saddened by this development because people on both sides of the issue are persons of good will with the best interests of their students at heart. As a supporter of the proposal, I think it is time that we recognized the validity and importance of the objections being made against our proposal. There is more at stake here than just the presence or absence of a team-writing unit in first-year composition.

At the very heart of the issue is the perception that we who support the proposal are gradually eroding standards from the writing curriculum. Several years ago many of us urged the department to eliminate the long research paper as

* Our thanks to Catherine Brown in an unpublished paper written at Seattle University.

well as the departmental test in editing and grammar. As we have moved more and more to a process approach, the number of papers written by first-year students has declined to accommodate more extensive revision, and many of us have moved from having students read mainstream academic texts to doing analyses of popular culture (cartoons, TV shows, advertisements, etc.). The team-writing proposal seems to many people in our department simply another move away from academic rigor to trendy educational "reform." At every stage of the way, it seems, we have made first-year comp easier rather than harder (analyzing a Gary Larson cartoon rather than a Platonic dialogue) and more fun rather than demanding (watching TV for homework rather than doing library research). The team-writing essay seems to reduce the workload even further; in fact, the lazy student might be able to "hitchhike" his way through the whole project letting the energetic students do all the work. Now if those of us who support the team-writing proposal believe that we do uphold standards and that our courses are characterized by academic rigor and excellence, then we must demonstrate our commitment to these values.

A second perception of our proposal is that it is being used to undermine the traditional role of the teacher. On the surface, at least, use of small groups in the classroom looks lazy, requiring very little preparation and even less classroom skill. Moreover, poorly planned collaborative tasks can often be colossal wastes of time characterized by unfocused and nonproductive talk, fidgeting, and eye-rolling boredom. Once again the burden of proof is on us to show that teaching through collaborative groups requires professional preparation and classroom teaching skill and that our students are at least as likely to learn the knowledge and know-how that all of us expect from them through group work as through traditional means. We know to what extent good lecturing requires professional preparation and skill. We need to show how teaching with small groups requires the same level of professionalism and gets at least as good results.

I therefore suggest that those of us who support the team-writing proposal must demonstrate to the department that we too value the maintenance of high standards for student writing, the centrality and professionalism of the teacher, and commitment to academic excellence and rigor. I recommend therefore that the team-writing proposal be linked to another proposal requiring that the department establish a set of learning outcomes for every class and measure student progress toward those outcomes. If team writing truly is effective, it is up to us to demonstrate that effectiveness by mutually agreeable measures.

The debate over the team-writing proposal gives our department an excellent chance to communicate more fully with each other and to discover that we share a great number of educational values. It is important that all members of the department have their voices heard as we chart out the future of our program. I hope that this compromise proposal gives us a way to move productively forward.

FOR CLASS DISCUSSION

1. In the above letter, what shared values between writer and audience does the writer stress?
2. Compare the argumentative strategy of this letter with those of Versions 1 and 2 on pages 167–69 (all three letters support the team-writing proposal).

- a. How do the three essays differ in the way they accommodate their audiences?
- b. How do the essays project a different *ethos*, or image of the writer? How do they differ in the kinds of appeals they make to their audience?
- c. How would you evaluate the effectiveness of each strategy? Why?

CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter has shown you the difference between one- and two-sided arguments and suggested that two-sided arguments are apt to be more persuasive to opposing or neutral audiences. A two-sided argument generally includes a fair summary of the opposing views, followed by either a rebuttal, a concession, or an attempt at Rogerian synthesis or compromise. How much space your essay devotes to opposing views and which strategy you use depend on the rhetorical context in which you find yourself, the audience you are trying to reach, and the ultimate purpose you intend.

APPLICATION OF PRINCIPLES FROM PARTS I AND II TO YOUR OWN WRITING: A GENERAL CHECKLIST FOR EVALUATING DRAFTS

We conclude this chapter by providing a general checklist for evaluating drafts. The checklist serves also as a selective summary of important points and concepts from the first eight chapters of this text. As a writer, you may find such a checklist useful for revising your drafts. But the checklist is most useful, we believe, for readers during an exchange of drafts among peers. When you read a fellow student's draft, your obligation is to provide the most helpful response you can to enable your colleague to revise his or her argument. The following checklist may help you improve the quality of your responses.

General Checklist for Evaluating Drafts

UNDERSTANDING THE WRITER'S INTENTIONS

- What issue is being addressed in this draft?
- What is the writer's thesis (claim, proposition)?
- Where does the writer choose to reveal the thesis? At the beginning? In the middle? At the end? (See discussion of standard form versus delayed thesis, pp. 157–165).
- Can you summarize the writer's main reasons as because clauses?

- Is the draft a one-sided or two-sided argument?
- What audience seems to be addressed? The opposition? Neutral third party? Fellow believers? Other?
- What stance does the writer take toward opposing views? Tough-minded and combative? Conciliatory? Other?

RECONSTRUCTING THE WRITER'S ARGUMENT

- Can you make a tree diagram, flow chart, or outline of the writer's argument? (See pp. 70–75.)
- Summarize the writer's argument in 100–200 words. (If you have trouble summarizing the argument, discuss difficulties with writer. Have him or her talk you through the argument orally and then make recommendations for revision.)

CRITIQUING THE WRITER'S ARGUMENT

- How effective are the writer's supporting reasons? Are there any additional reasons the writer might use?
- Is each reason supported with effective grounds in the form of factual data, evidence, statistics, testimony, or appropriate chains of reasons?
- Do the warrants for any of the reasons need to be explicitly articulated and supported with backing?
- To what extent are the supporting reasons audience-based instead of writer-based? (Do each of the supporting enthymemes rest in values shared by the audience? See pp. 140–47.)
- Does the writer attend adequately to opposing views? As a reviewer of this draft, how would you go about refuting the writer's argument?
- If the writer summarizes opposing views, does he or she follow the principle of charity—a fair, accurate, complete summary, making the opponent's "best case" (see pp. 170–71)?
- If the writer rebuts the opposition, is the rebuttal clear and effective? How could it be improved?
- Does the writer project an effective *ethos* (see pp. 149–50)?
- Does the writer make effective use of *pathos*? How could appeals to *pathos* be strengthened through narratives, specific images and details, metaphor and analogy, or word choice (see pp. 150–57)?

CRITIQUING THE ORGANIZATION AND CLARITY OF THE WRITING

- Identify places where the draft is confusing or unclear.
- Do the opening lines engage readers' interest?

- Does the opening introduce the issue and provide enough background?
- If the thesis is presented in the opening, is it clear and is it related effectively to the issue? If the thesis is delayed, is the organization of the draft easy to follow?
- If the essay adopts a self-announcing structure (see pp. 96–97), does the introduction forecast the organizational structure of the essay? Does the essay follow the structure as forecasted? Are transitions between parts clear?
- If the essay adopts an unfolding structure, can you follow the argument? Upon reflection after reading the essay, can you identify the claim and supporting reasons?
- Is the effectiveness of the essay diminished by wordiness, clumsy sentence structure, ineffective passive voice, and other problems of editing, grammar, or style?

SUMMARY OF YOUR RECOMMENDATIONS AS PEER REVIEWER

- What improvements can be made in quality of the writing?
- What improvements can be made in the main reasons supporting the claim?
- What improvements can be made in the use of data and evidence as grounds for the argument?
- What rhetorical changes would you recommend? Adopting a different tone or stance toward audience? Shifting from a one- to two-sided argument? Creating more audience-based reasons? Other?