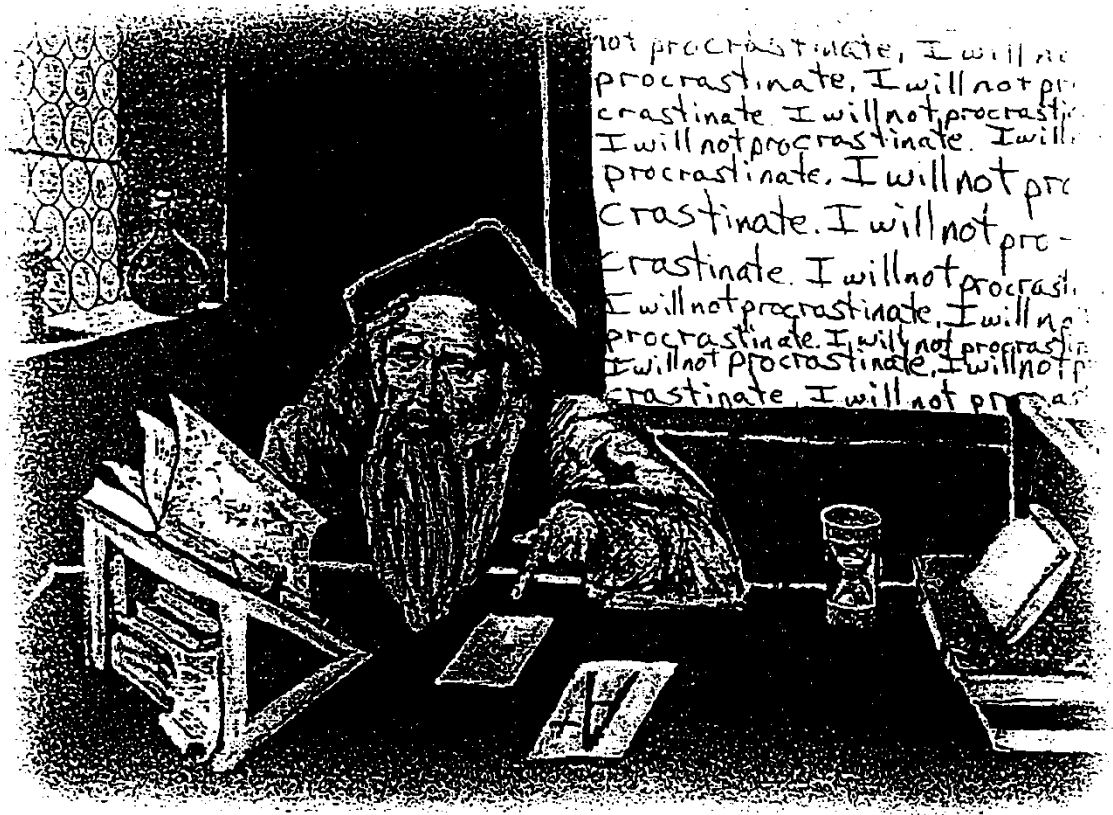


ENGLISH 1302

STUDY GUIDE



Houston Community College Northwest

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Northwest College

English 1302 Study Guide

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English 1302 Study Guide

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0. INTRODUCTION: ISSUES

Everywhere and Unavoidable

Some students question why they must learn persuasion and analysis, research techniques, and argument. Believing that getting along makes more sense than making a fuss, they balk at the idea of being contentious or argumentative. However, one doesn't have to be obnoxious or offensive to stand up for something important. In fact, people face issues that demand persuasive and analytical skills every day, responding to them in ways that do not undermine, but build relationships.

From whether to order a pizza or to cook a favorite chicken and rice dish, to deciding whether to get a poodle or a Doberman, people must wrestle with issues which demand a resolution among family members and friends. Either a pizza or the chicken and rice dish will be eaten, and few of us are totally without preference. If we give in to the chicken and rice dish tonight, are we willing to do so the next time? Are we willing to put up with a Doberman for the next ten years if it's the poodle we want? Eventually, most of us learn to fight for what we want and, in doing so, notice in our struggles that some people persuade others more effectively than we do.

What do they do?

As we all know, issues also surface in the community, in school, and at the workplace. Should taxes be raised? What should be done about the abandoned house down the street? Which is more influential: heredity or environment? Does the feminist analysis reveal something we didn't expect? Do we open a new retail outlet at Katy Mills? Should one fire an employee to cut costs or should another solution be found? In every case, a solution or a preference or a decision must be made, and often people, smart people, believe the opposite of what we believe. Again, do we allow others to always take the debate, to get what they want, while we sit by and watch, fully aware that our solution is the best answer?

This booklet teaches the skills needed to not only persuade others, but to analyze what opponents think and to show their arguments' flaws in a way that will earn respect, not animosity. The sections are ordered progressively, from the simplest to the most complex, starting with exploratory and persuasive writing, followed by analysis, and ending on classical argumentation, which includes both persuasion and analysis. For many students, these strategies and techniques will be new and challenging, but, remember, exposure to and mastery of these skills gives a student a great advantage: the ability to effectively make a point and to defend it. In addition, mastery of these techniques contains a hidden benefit: the respect of students, co-workers, teachers, and employers.

0.1. Exploratory Essays

Work and social involvements instigate most of the issues we argue, but in an English class, the issues addressed may or may not be focused on the immediate concerns of our lives. Some instructors will ask students to focus on the myriad of issues attached to one topic, perhaps the environment, while others will allow students to choose from a number of themes in a reader, which might range from Cultural Heritage to Injustice in Society. In either case, choices must be made. One of the most important is: what do I write about? Often the professor answers, "Write what you know." Well, how many topics do we know much about? The truth is, not many. If one's family lives on a farm, the student may know about the issues surrounding farm subsidies and feedlots or land use and the effect of fertilizers and pesticides on the water we drink. If students have lived abroad, they may know about the global economy and the U.S.'s role in it,

foreign aid, or terrorism; however, they may have been so involved in learning the culture and language that they know little of these issues. As young adults, most of our ideas about the world come from our parents and teachers and we accept them as fact. If parents are concerned about recycling, students learn how items such as cans, melon rinds, and plastic diapers may or may not be biodegradable from discussions around the dinner table. If a teacher assigns a project on the homeless, a student might have studied the problem and written a letter to a representative expressing concerns about the stooped man at the highway with a mangy dog and sign saying, “Vietnam Vet. Help.”

To learn for ourselves what we believe about an issue, an effective first step is the précis or exploratory essay. After deciding on a topic and a controversy, the student researches the issues and their histories, then writes an essay explaining different groups’ and individuals’ positions. For example, the student essay, which follows this explanation, explores whether or not genetically enhanced crops cause more problems than they solve. The writer defines the genetic process (a good idea because it’s technical), then looks at what a major corporation, Monsanto, says about its products, then states the claims of scientists wary of genetically enhanced crops. Finally, she looks at the moral questions and the ethics of these products’ developers. Because the primary purpose of an exploratory essay lies in explaining the controversy, the writer does not have to lead up to a position on the issue, but many papers do so in the conclusion and an instructor may require this. In the example, persuaded by two of the three positions studied, the student takes a strong stand on the issue.

Remember arguments, contrary to what politicians tell us, have more than two sides and an arch of viable possibilities extends from one extreme to the next. Thoughtful students will search out moderate positions as well as the extremes and make up their own minds based on evidence, not publicity campaigns or what Uncle George says at the dinner table.

How does this paper mushroom into a research paper? Easily. Yes, work lies ahead, but the writer now understands the issue and knows some of the major players and their arguments. If the writer did not take a position in the exploratory paper, he now must decide where he stands on the issue. He adds up the evidence and comes to the best conclusion, the best position that the evidence suggests. In our example, in the development of her paper, the writer made up her mind, so she can readily develop a refutation undermining the arguments of those with whom she disagrees and she can readily research evidence to clarify and develop her own position on genetically enhanced crops.

Nancy Wood, a professor at the University of Texas at Arlington, explains this process in great detail in her reader, *Perspectives on Argument*, where she boils the exploratory essay down into five essential ingredients:

1. Research the issue and explain it clearly;
2. Tell what sparked your interest in the issue;
3. Find the people and groups who have a stake or an interest in it;
4. Write about three or four positions that people take, showing the underlying beliefs, evidence and logic that support each. These should include extreme and moderate positions;
5. Take a stand in the conclusion.

1. PERSUASION

Although we all know from practice what it is to successfully persuade someone, for example, to convince a brother to clean the table or to get a parent to choose the video we want, it's not as easy to describe just how such magic is accomplished. The brother who would rather shoot baskets after dinner and the parent who wants to watch Star Wars for the thirtieth time have agendas of their own, yet we get him or her to handle those messy chicken bones or to choose another film because of techniques of persuasion we've mastered. To persuade implies causing or influencing a person to do something or to believe something. Okay, so how do we do this?

When asked how they persuade others, some students will shyly say, "Cry" or boldly assert, "Show facts." Others may say, "Show'm the benefits" or "Use history" or "Show'm how they're wrong." Still others, when pressed, will state, "Blackmail'm" or "Lie." Before long, a blackboard full of everyone's favorite techniques stares back at them, and when strategies are assessed, it's clear some of the methods seem wonderful while others, although clever, are not as effective in a written context.

Like any brainstorming session, one rooting out the ways people get what they want in this world creates a lot of information, some useful and some not. The question becomes, what do we do with it? More than 2400 years ago, in ancient Greece, the Athenians looked at the same information. In their direct democracy, each citizen could cast a vote and attempt to influence others to cast votes in favor of proposals. When it became clear that the citizen who could persuade others usually got the votes to do what he wanted, people became very interested in studying how to master the art of persuasion. After examining methods, such as those listed on a classroom blackboard, thinkers saw that the approaches could be divided into three major categories: Pathos, Ethos, and Logos. These Greek words stand for emotion, ethics, and logic, the most common techniques people use to persuade others.

1.1. The Emotional Appeal (Pathos)

Although we may not always like to admit it, a great number of our decisions and beliefs are based on purely emotional reactions. Notice political advertising, especially billboards. Is there a lot of substance to the ad by Judge Jones featuring her smiling face and the words "Tough on Crime"? Of course not. We like her looks; we like her slogan. Do we know anything about what she believes? No. No one likes crime and every judicial candidate, given the strictures of law, would be tough on crime. After passing the billboard, we are left with a pleasing image and a secure, comfortable notion that Judge Jones will serve our interests. Such is an emotional appeal, or pathos; it appeals to our needs, values, and attitudes, encouraging us to commit to a certain viewpoint or stance based on our feelings.

In writing, emotional appeals are developed two ways:

- (1) Connotative words
and
- (2) Strong examples

Connotative words are words with strong emotional overtones; they are not neutral. To understand this, know the difference between denotation and connotation. Think of "d" for dictionary. The denotation of a word is its meaning in a dictionary. For example, the word "politician" means a person in a political office or one skilled or experienced in practical politics. The connotation, i.e., the ideas suggested by or associated with the word,

the social, colloquial, everyday use of the word, means much more. When asked for the connotation of the word politician, students will reply, “Liar,” “Opportunist,” “Schemer,” and “Cheat,” to name the “G” rated responses, and few students would want to be called one.

So how does this apply to an emotional appeal? Every time we choose a word—specifically a noun, verb, adjective, or adverb—we have the choice of choosing one with a strong positive or negative connotation or a neutral one. For example, as discussed, politician has a negative connotation. What would be a way to say politician in a neutral way or a positive way? Since the word politician is so laden with negative associations, we must search for other words, which say the same thing:

Negative:	Politician
Neutral:	Public official
Positive:	Statesman or Stateswoman

To compliment a certain political figure, call him a statesman or a stateswoman. The positive connotations of the word, which imply wisdom, fairness, and good judgment in the world of practical politics, leave an audience with a very good impression. To say “public official” leaves less of an impression upon an audience. In either case, the word chosen has a definite effect, positive, negative, or neutral. These choices face the writer at every turn. Other examples include:

	Noun	Verb	Adjective	Adverb
Negative:	Shack	Needs	Skinny	Clumsily
Neutral:	Dwelling	Wants	Slim	Awkwardly
Positive:	Cottage	Desires	Slender	Ungracefully

Good writing always contains connotative words, but the consistent use of negative and positive words in a specific pattern create an emotional appeal: the opposition and its beliefs are painted in negatively connotative words, while the proponent and his or her beliefs are portrayed in glowing, positive ones.

Emotional Examples can also be highly persuasive. Just as our word choices could be negative, neutral, and positive, so can our choice of examples; the writer has the option to select examples that are highly connotative or ones that are not.

For example, if we were to read that Judge Jones sent “a shoplifter to jail for twenty years,” we would be shocked and horrified at the severity of the sentence. Indeed, we not only see the evidence but feel an emotional reaction based on our values about what is appropriate or not. Indeed, she’s tough on crime, very tough:

Negative:	Sent a shoplifter to jail for twenty years
Neutral:	Placed a shoplifter on probation
Positive:	Fined a shoplifter \$100 and demanded fifty hours of public service

Notice that given our views on the issue, we might have very different opinions about what is a positive, negative, or neutral example. So, the use of examples as an emotional appeal might differ according to the perceived values of the audience.

An example is definitely used as part of an emotional appeal if it is mixed with connotative words. For instance, if Judge Jones sent “a pregnant teenage shoplifter to jail for

twenty years,” our feelings are aroused in ways that they were not before. The words “pregnant” and “teenage” have connotations that color the original, more neutral example.

Pathos or an emotional appeal exists when connotative words and/or examples are used as a strategy, as a deliberate tool, to persuade the audience. A few hot words and a couple of neutral examples do not an appeal make. A consistent coloring of the information, negative for the opposition and positive for the affirmative, does.

1.2. The Ethical Appeal (Ethos)

An ethical appeal establishes a writer’s credibility. It’s hard to convince someone to believe in you or in an issue you believe in if your credibility is in question. Therefore, writers and speakers often work hard to develop *ethos*, an ethical appeal, as a conscious strategy to show that they are knowledgeable and reasonable. In the process of developing a strong ethical appeal, they create a persona which is trustworthy and, consequently, worth listening to on important issues. Credibility is established through

- (1) Reasonable Tone
- (2) Common Ground
- (3) Knowledge of Subject Matter
- (4) Outside Authority

Reasonable Tone: As we are all aware, people who rant and rave over an issue or promise too much do not elicit our trust. We dislike their attitude and question their integrity. Although the emotional attitude of the writer may shift, blowing hot or cold during an argument, the relationship between the writer and the subject matter should not include words and examples that cross some undefined but understood line beyond which the writer is no longer thought creditable. With good reason, audiences tend to be leery of too many highly charged words and extreme examples.

For example, calling someone who defiles a public trust a “rapist,” goes beyond what seems reasonable. Similarly, to call a highly respected individual a “fool,” tends to make thoughtful people wonder who the fool really is. Likewise, in Shakespeare’s *Hamlet*, Queen Gertrude states, “The lady doth protest too much, me thinks.” In this case, the promises made by the lady in question are thought to be beyond what is possible and therefore without credibility.

Questions of reasonableness may be aimed at a very strong emotional appeal where highly charged negative and positive words, although clever and even fun, can undermine the speaker’s credibility. Just as the sensitive Queen Gertrude in *Hamlet* knows when there is too much, the reader and writer of appeals must carefully respect the invisible, but ever present, line of what is or is not acceptable and/or believable.

Common Ground: A very effective way to gain sympathy is to accommodate an audience or an opponent. Although most writers attempt to find areas where they and an audience agree, for example, the value of freedom of speech or of our right to protect home and property, the writer who uses credibility as a strategy to convince will often strive to find agreement with its opposition. When a writer finds a way to acknowledge some aspect of the opposition’s stance or values as acceptable, it might also be referred to as a concession or an accommodation because one side concedes something to or accommodates the opposition.

For example, in an argument on how to fund Social Security, both Democrats and Republicans would agree that the elderly should have a source of income after they retire. Similarly, an advocate of euthanasia (assisted suicide of the terminally ill) may seek to establish common ground with the Catholic Church, which has taken a firm stand against mercy killings, by opposing suicide by healthy individuals.

It should be pointed out that in most arguments, common ground is possible and relatively easy to grant. Although the conclusions of an opponent may be impossible to agree with, one or more of the facts, assumptions, or reasons used to support an argument may be. Conversely, in some issues, such as racism or sexism, common ground may be impossible to grant; consequently, although important, the presence or absence of common ground will not determine solely the success or failure of an ethical appeal.

However, if appropriate, establishing common ground with the opposition can greatly enhance credibility. The speaker willing to grant it is perceived by an audience to be much more reasonable than someone who does not.

Knowledge of Subject Matter: The bedrock upon which most ethical appeals stand is the writer's or speaker's knowledge of subject matter. How does one show knowledge? Many ways exist, including the use of

- | | |
|------------------|-----------------------|
| * facts | * examples |
| * statistics | * general knowledge |
| * surveys | * others' experiences |
| * shared beliefs | * our own experiences |

By showing that a subject is understood in great depth, a writer instantly gains an audience's respect. We listen to people who know what they are talking about, even if we might not agree with them, and we know that someone is knowledgeable when he or she is very specific and uses concrete language to make points. In Martin Luther King, Jr.'s "Letter from Birmingham Jail," he knows that a lot of whites will not take him seriously unless he establishes credibility; to do so, he constantly uses the specific names of individuals such as Birmingham Mayor Albert Boutwell and the Commissioner of Public safety, Eugene "Bill" Conner, citing their roles in the struggle which lead to the march and sit-in in Birmingham.

He also alludes throughout the letter to his and others' experiences, giving specific anecdotes and examples, such as a reference to Rosa Park's refusal to ride in the back of a bus in Montgomery and her words: "My feet is tired, but my soul is at rest." Such specifics persuade. Vague generalities and abstractions do not. In fact, they make us suspect the writer or speaker. We ask, "Why aren't there specifics?" "What is he hiding?" "Hasn't she done her homework?" As noted in the King essay, specific facts, experiences, history, etc., demonstrate knowledge, allowing an audience to listen closely to the nuances of an argument and believe they are reading something of value. Ironically, even if an audience is opposed to a position, it will respect the writer or speaker who has done his or her homework and knows how to use specific evidence to support points. King's essay is a case in point. It was published in every newspaper in the country.

To gain credibility, evidence, such as King gives, is crucial. Anyone can make an assertion on a given subject, but not everyone can support a claim with evidence to prove it. In courts, judges and juries determine if witnesses are creditable and if enough evidence has been shown to convict or acquit. As readers, we are in a similar position. Is the writer

credible? Does he use specific evidence to support his claims? Does she ramble on, speaking in abstractions and generalities without giving hard evidence? As writers, when attempting to establish credibility before an audience, we must give it as much hard evidence as possible so that it will judge us favorably. Our assertions must not only make sense, but be backed up by relevant, specific, sufficient evidence.

Outside Authority: In the pursuit of respect, in the development of an ethical appeal, a writer or a speaker is thought to be all the more credible if he or she is supported by an authority or authorities that an audience holds in the highest regard. Such authority can be classified in two major categories:

- (1) Authoritative Documents
- (2) Authoritative Experts

Documents, which people believe in, such as the U.S. Constitution and the Bible, are often referred to as an authority to help establish the credibility of a claim. For example, neo-nazi hate groups often cite the First Amendment as the legal basis for their right to say whatever they want to about minorities, non-Christians, and opposition groups. The position has more credibility because freedom of speech is guaranteed in the Constitution; since U.S. citizens believe in the Constitution as the law of the land, such arguments must be taken more seriously than if such guarantees were not in the Constitution. In another example, King's letter is in response to a letter written by eight Alabama clergymen, and although he does not quote chapter and verse, he constantly alludes to Biblical figures and their plights comparing them to his and his people's. Again, the strategy is effective. King's position gains credibility from the comparison to Biblical figures that men—and in particular his original audience, the eight white clergymen—hold in esteem.

Documents can be more humble and still carry weight. A Last Will And Testament is the authority in dividing up an estate, just as a traffic law is the authority in determining if a motorist caught driving 80 mph in a 70 mph zone should receive a ticket. Similarly, one of Shakespeare's scripts, say the tragedy of *Hamlet*, is authoritative in any dispute on the play's dialogue.

Experts, referred to in support of a claim, also give credibility. In King's classic essay, he not only references Biblical figures, laws, and Supreme Court decisions, but directly and indirectly quotes philosophers such as Martin Buber, Paul Tillich, and Reinhold Niebuhr, political extremists such as John Bunyan, Abraham Lincoln, and Thomas Jefferson, and even poets such as T.S. Eliot. The effect is extraordinary. Although these men were not speaking directly about King's situation in Birmingham, by using their ideas in support of his own, King marshals their support ideologically. They believed what he believes; therefore, the reader who believes in these figures' ideas must, logically, believe in King's ideas.

Note that a quote from an outside authority is not evidence, unless the authority is an actual witness to a specific incident. However, such testimonies shore up a claim, a contention, or an assertion by speaking about the same issue in a supportive manner. This shows that the proponent of an issue is not alone in his beliefs. Others whom we respect also believe in his or her ideas; consequently, the writer and the argument are held in higher esteem. Also note that the more specific the reference to authority, the more effective it is. General references to scholars or historians or philosophers carry little or no weight. The thoughtful reader wants to know

who the authority is and what, specifically, he or she says or believes before granting any additional credibility to a claim.

To make an ethical appeal, a combination of some or all of the above categories is necessary. Again, although common ground may not be possible, an ethical appeal is effective if a reasonable tone and outside authorities support a demonstrated knowledge of subject matter. It should be noted that before all but a highly supportive audience, an ethical appeal is expected. In a world of fast talkers, audiences want to know who is creditable.

1.3. The Logical Appeal (Logos)

When speaking of logic, we refer to the methods of reasoning being used by a speaker to convince an audience. The information presented to accomplish this, the actual information itself, is not logical—it is just information, just facts. Logic is the method or process by which the information is presented based on a principal of reasoning. As a consequence, the reader hears the information in a certain way and makes certain inferences based on the way it is presented.

For example, in “Letter from Birmingham Jail,” King states that he was president of the Southern Christian Leadership Conference, that this organization had eighty-five affiliate organizations, and that it had an affiliate in Birmingham. By themselves, these pieces of information contain no process of reasoning. Verifiable and therefore true, they are facts; but individually, they possess no logic. The Southern Christian Leadership Conference is a separate piece of information, separate from the fact that it had eighty-five affiliates, separate from the fact that one of the affiliates existed in Birmingham. However, when this information is combined and carefully delivered to an audience, it collectively affects a reader. The reader consciously and often unconsciously collects and connects the information delivered into his or her mind to see if it adds up to anything, if it possesses a collective inference larger than the separate pieces of fact. In the context of King’s essay it does; he establishes that he was not an outside agitator but the president of a large organization with an affiliate in Birmingham that requested its leader’s presence.

This careful delivery of information into patterns of connections that the mind can process is the use of logic, and any conclusions reached from this reasoning process are said to be the result of logic. Such patterns of reasoning can be as simple as $1 + 1 = 2$ or as complex as the reasoning used by King to show that the road to racial equality is being blocked, not by the racist, but by the passive white moderate.

When establishing an appeal to logic or *logos*, the speaker or writer carefully arranges the evidence he or she has to support a point in order for the audience to intellectually accept it. Emotionally, the reader may not like what the logic of an argument dictates. He or she may not even think the speaker very creditable, but “if things add up, they add up.” For many people, logic overrides other considerations. A successful appeal to logic stresses patterns of thinking and the conclusions derived from them. As in emotional and ethical appeals, one or a couple of instances of logical thought in an essay do not make an appeal. A logical appeal will employ the use of logic throughout, seldom, if ever, dispensing information without connecting it to a formal reasoning process.

Developing a Logical Appeal: Logic can be reduced to two approaches — inductive and deductive reasoning. The beginning writer of appeals should also be aware of their two

offspring: patterns of logical development and fallacies in logic. A logical appeal can include:

- * Inductive Reasoning
- * Deductive Reasoning
- * Patterns of Logical Development

1.3.1. Inductive Reasoning

Often referred to as the scientific method, inductive reasoning focuses on a particular subject, finding and developing information on it in the form of facts, examples, statistics, samples, observations, experiments, etc. When a quantity of representative information is collected, we study it to see if it adds up to anything, if any general conclusions can be drawn from the information. If so, we say that the conclusion is the result of inductive reasoning or induction. Grammar texts say that the inductive thought process proceeds from the specific (the individual instances of evidence) to the general (a conclusion). Again, the reasoning process, not the evidence, is the logic: we take the individual instances and add them up to see if they equal any generality, any workable conclusion.

For example, we observe the sun rises every morning in the east, continues in an arc over our heads, and sets in the west. When the sky is clear, we see it do so daily. This is what we observe today, just as ancient astronomers observed. Taking this information, ancient astronomers looked into their minds and added it up, coming to a logical conclusion: The sun rotates around the earth!

This workable conclusion about the relationship between the sun and the earth, this generalization based on observable evidence, served man for centuries. It employed what we call an inductive leap, a logical jump that takes place in the mind, a leap made from the evidence collected to a conclusion that concurs with and includes all the information available on the subject.

Given the information early astronomers possessed, it was absolutely logical for them to conclude by induction that the sun rotated around the earth. Today, knowing that it's the earth, not the sun, which orbits, we look back and smile. Yet when we look up into the sky, we see the same things. Why were ancient astronomers wrong? The problem lies in their information, not in their reasoning; they didn't know their evidence was incomplete. What does this tell us? Conclusions based on induction, on taking specific information and adding it up in our minds, can never be certain. There might be other information out there, something we don't know, which has not been discovered yet. In this case, Copernicus, then Galileo, found contrary information and added it to the old evidence and came to a new conclusion, making a different inductive leap, one that pointed to what we know today.

Induction is such a part of our lives and our thought processes that we hardly notice it. We apply it to such simple things as deciding whether one can get to school on time—"The car's running; there's gas in it; I made it in fifteen minutes yesterday. I can make it!"—to nuclear physics, where the observation of neutrons and electrons allows scientists to make conclusions about energy.

In class papers, students regularly employ inductive reasoning, and its results are not always consistent. For example, in a paper on whether there should be prison reform, one student adds up the information he's collected (overcrowding, recidivism, lack of education) and concludes reform. However, another student looks at the same information plus studies done on the methods employed by prison officials in Florida and adds the information up into a different conclusion: no reform.

In fact, many student papers, even literary analyses, develop major points to prove a thesis employing inductive reasoning. For example, when analyzing “A Rose for Emily” by William Faulkner, a student points to evidence observed in the short story. Citing Miss Emily’s family background, her arrogant refusal to answer the druggist’s questions about poison, her open rides with Homer Barron in the carriage, her refusal to pay taxes, and many other observations, he adds them up and makes an inductive leap, concluding the story is about the sin of pride and its horrible manifestations when allowed to go unchecked.

Finally, in writing the inductive argument, students must remember to be inclusive of all the information available and to present it in such a way that the reader will infer the desired conclusion, one which supports the essay’s claim.

1.3.2. Checklist: Inductive Argument

1. What are the Main important facts?
2. What do the important facts, data, statistics, etc., of the past and/or present add up to?
What proposition will they support?
3. How does the evidence strongly support a particular conclusion? Or how is it just one of many probabilities?
4. What information is needed to support the most logical conclusion? Can it be found?
5. Is the evidence organized such that an audience can process the information and make the same inductive leap as the writer? Is this easy for a reader or a stretch?
What can be done to make the leap easier?
6. Show how the evidence is sufficient?
Representative?
Accurate?
Relevant?
Current?
Biased?
Specific?
7. Since an inductive leap is, at best, highly probable, what other information might undermine the conclusion?

1.3.3. Deductive Reasoning

Like inductive reasoning, deduction is used by people all the time and we are unconscious of its presence in our thinking. For example, if a student likes red cars and spots a red Mustang, we can conclude that he’ll like the Mustang. Similarly, if the Constitution says that citizens have the right to bear arms and citizen Billy Fitzgerald wants to buy a gun, Billy has the right to do so. Notice that the reasoning process in deduction flows from generalities to specifics: a preference for red cars to a specific Mustang; a constitutional amendment to an individual, Billy Fitzgerald. Notice also that evidence is not relevant, nor the inductive leap. The underlying syllogism, which supports the deductive thought process, functions differently in the mind and is based on whether certain propositions are true and whether instances that test these propositions are relevant.

We call the three step reasoning process that defines deduction a syllogism. It consists of a major premise (a truism), a minor premise (a specific instance), and a conclusion (the relationship between the specific instance and the truism). An example makes this clear:

Major Premise:	The release of chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) into the atmosphere creates a hole in the earth's protective ozone layer.
Minor Premise:	Freon, a CFC used in home air-conditioning systems and older cars, is often released into the atmosphere.
Conclusion:	The use of Freon helps create the hole in the earth's protective ozone layer.

In this case, we are offered two premises, two beliefs on the same topic that are held to be true. One is general and the other specific, and our job is to

- 1) Assess if the premises are indeed true
- 2) Compare the two statements to see what if any relationship exists between the general statement and the specific one.

If the statements are true and there is a connection, the mind draws a conclusion; in this case, it concludes that the use of Freon damages the ozone layer.

An important difference between induction and deduction involves the degree of certainty surrounding conclusions. As discussed, inductive reasoning creates an inductive leap that can at best discover a conclusion that is highly probable. On the other hand, if the premises are true and the connection between them correct, the conclusion in deductive reasoning is not probable, but absolutely true. Consequently, deductive reasoning is an effective tool in any appeal to logic.

Of course, the trick in developing a deductive argument surrounds discovering the major premise an audience will accept as true. Consequently, its wording must be very carefully considered. For example, if the noun "chlorofluorocarbons" were made more general in our example, we would have a different major premise: The release of gases into the atmosphere creates a hole in the earth's protective ozone layer. Is this statement true? No. The earth creates many gases essential for the balance of life.

Of equal importance is the minor premise because it connects the conclusion to the major premise. For example, if the phrase "a CFC used in home air-conditioning systems and older cars" were eliminated, we would have a different minor premise—Freon is often released into the atmosphere—one without any obvious connection to the major premise that stresses CFCs. Yes, Freon may be a CFC, but unless that is explicitly stated, the connection breaks down.

Whenever possible, students should strive to use both inductive and deductive reasoning to persuade an audience. Again, the use of deductive reasoning may be more easily applied than one thinks. For instance, any paper dealing with capital punishment, euthanasia, or abortion deals with the sanctity of life. Given one's position, what universal statement, what truism, what major premise can be made about life that an audience will acknowledge as true? Brainstorm. Come up with a statement that works, then apply it to an individual instance (minor premise) and write a conclusion.

1.3.4. Checklist: Deductive Argument

1. What major premise will support a syllogism in favor of a position you hold dear?
2. Which of the following might be that general premise:
 - A universal truth?
 - An accepted maxim (saying) about life?
 - A truism?
 - A law?
3. Once the major premise is discovered, how carefully are its words chosen to assure audience acceptance? Can it be challenged? How?
4. What good specific example (minor premise) would best compliment your major premise?
5. What makes the minor premise specific? Relevant?
6. How does the conclusion follow from the major and minor premises?
7. What makes the wording as clear as possible so an audience can easily follow the reasoning and come to the same conclusion?

1.3.5. Patterns of Logical Development

How Can We Apply Induction and Deduction?

Although it doesn't take much effort to say, "Use inductive and deductive logic to develop and support a thesis," it takes a focused effort to learn how to effectively do so. Essays don't stop and place a syllogism showing major and minor premises in the middle of the text, nor do they supply a bulletined list of observations and evidence followed by a star and the conclusion. Good writers incorporate deduction and induction seamlessly into their prose by using techniques most students learn in high school and Composition 1: the traditional patterns of logical development.

Does this mean writing illustration essays or comparison and contrast papers? No. In fact, when using patterns such as illustration and comparison and contrast as logical strategies to organize deductive or inductive arguments, writers find it effective to apply these patterns paragraph-by-paragraph. Flexible and dynamic, most of the patterns subtly organize evidence according to logic. Those that do this include:

- | | | |
|---------------------------|--------------------|--------------|
| * Compare and contrast | * Cause and effect | * Definition |
| * Illustration | * Exemplification | * Analogy |
| * Classification/division | * Process analysis | |

For example, if someone updates a driver's license, he or she might experience long lines, endure an unbelievable wait for the eye checkup, cram for the written exam, flunk the exam, curse the system, ask for divine help, down three cups of coffee, and, finally, pass the exam. Conclusion: Updating a driver's license is a nightmare! From the perspective of formal logic, such experiences are the ingredients for an inductive argument; sufficient, relative evidence adds up to a conclusion. This experience, this inductive argument, could be effectively expressed in an exemplification paragraph. Such a paragraph includes a number of examples in support of a topic sentence. "Updating a driver's license is a nightmare" would be the topic sentence, and the sentences to follow would include detailed, complete thoughts on all of the experiences listed above.

On the other hand, a definition paragraph employs deductive reasoning. For example, a simile is defined as an expressed comparison using like or as. When examining Frost's poem "Birches," a student notices "like" in the following lines:

You may see their trunks arching in the woods Years
afterwards, trailing their leaves on the ground Like
girls on hands and knees that throw their hair Before
them over their heads to dry in the sun.

The student correctly concludes that this image of girls drying their hair in the sun is a simile. Although this observation would normally be expressed in a simple definition sentence or paragraph, it is logically a syllogism:

Major Premise:	A simile is an expressed comparison using "like" or "as."
Minor Premise:	"Birches" compares the image of girls drying their hair to the way birches look, introducing the idea with the word "like."
Conclusion:	The image of girls drying their hair in "Birches" is a simile.

Most students have used exemplification, definition, and other patterns to organize support for a topic sentence, but for many, this is an unconscious choice. To do so consciously, develops an awareness of the strategies available to a writer; and to do so thoughtfully and with variation, develops a more interesting and creative text. For example, one inductive argument may be developed using compare and contrast and the next using cause and effect.

Most students have one preferred way of being logical. Perhaps, they learned it in middle school or high school, and ever since they received acknowledgment for a job well done, they've clung to it as a strategy that works. John may be a cause and effect guy, always organizing his thoughts into causes or effects; he may not only write this way but also speak using this form of reasoning also. Mary may be a comparison and contrast gal, always using comparison and contrast. Another person may use process, continually breaking information down into steps and analyzing how events develop chronologically.

To continually rely on any one logical expression limits one's ability to communicate and makes one's writing predictable and much less interesting than texts that vary logical development. To learn all the possible ways of logically presenting information and becoming a more dynamic writer, look in the paragraph development section of a grammar book.

To make a logical appeal, a combination of some or all of the above categories is necessary. Again, an appeal to *logos* requires the author to consistently use forms of logic to persuade and influence the thinking of the audience.

1.3.6. Fallacies in Logic

Errors in reasoning, in induction or deduction, are called logical fallacies. They may be either errors of omission (accidental) or commission (intentional).

Of course, anyone can make a mistake; for example, if someone does not really have enough evidence to make an inductive leap, but doesn't notice it and comes to a conclusion anyway, he or she commits an error in logic. This particular error is called a hasty conclusion. Errors in logic have been studied and labeled and have formal names, sometimes

expressed in Latin, such as a *post hoc* fallacy which deals with faulty cause and effect relationships (for example, relating a pattern of cold temperatures in New England with space shuttle missions) or an *ad hominem* fallacy (argument to the person) which attacks the person rather than the issue (for example, pointing to the fact that a legislator who favors abortion doesn't belong to an organized church).

Errors in logic are to be avoided because, if noticed by an audience, they show that an argument is inadequate. A list of representative logical fallacies is included in most grammar texts and students should know common stumbling blocks in logical reasoning in order to avoid making mistakes that could cost them their credibility. Think about the consequences of an error in logic in a paper attempting to persuade someone. It may not be fair, but the reader immediately asks: Why should I believe someone who can't think straight?

On the other hand, persuasive writers and speakers have made an art form out of logical fallacies, learning how to disguise inadequate logical arguments so that their points appear, not only adequate, but also highly convincing. Not having sufficient evidence to support conclusions or not having a valid argument, such writers play with cause and effect, definitions, authorities, popular prejudices, etc. to make a weak or invalid argument appear effective. Students should not only learn the most common logical fallacies to avoid making accidental errors that might cost them their credibility, but also learn logical fallacies in order to recognize such distortions in others' arguments.

How does one know if an error in logic is accidental or intentional? On one level, it doesn't matter. Whether intentional or not, an error in logic shows inadequate thinking skills and the argument should be dismissed. In practice, however, one error might happen to anyone, but two or three? If so, there's a fox in sheep's clothing. Reader, beware.

Why mention logical fallacies? They are often used to persuade audiences; students should be aware of them because if a claim had the evidence to support it, it would not need fallacies in logic to make it acceptable.

1.4. Audience and the Three Appeals

When writing persuasive essays, the most effective way to approach an audience is to categorize it according to its stand on an issue. For example, health insurance companies would be against any legislation allowing citizens to sue them for denial of benefits. Similarly, MADD (Mothers Against Drunk Driving) would favor legislation making it more costly for individuals to drink and drive. The writer who wants to persuade these audiences is faced with a dilemma. When is an emotional appeal most effective? An ethical appeal? A logical appeal? Can more than one appeal be used simultaneously? If so, how many?

Knowing the characteristics of an audience goes a long way toward determining which appeals to use. In persuasion, three audiences are classified:

- (1) Supportive
- (2) Wavering
- (3) Hostile

A supportive audience has a bias towards a position. For example, the Audubon Society supports the preservation of birds and their habitats; those who maintain the Edgar Allan Poe Web Site are favorable to and interested in critiques expanding knowledge about Poe's works; and the Museum of Modern Art is committed to avant-garde artists who see the world through abstract images. In such cases, the ornithologist has a favorable audience when she addresses the Audubon Society; the Poe scholar, when he submits an essay to the

Poe Web Site; and a highly acclaimed modern sculptor, when she shows her slides to the curator of the Museum of Modern Art. Emotionally and intellectually committed, these audiences are already supportive to those who believe as they do. Consequently, when approaching them, is it necessary to spend a lot of time establishing one's credibility? Or to make a logical argument in favor of the preservation of birds, the importance of Poe, or the necessity for new artistic vision? Of course not. These audiences already understand the logic behind their beliefs, and if the person making a proposal to them has the basic credentials, he or she is creditable and will be well received.

When a speaker addresses a supportive audience, since both parties are already in agreement, the goal is not to convince the audience, so much as to get it to do something: the Audubon society to raise money to buy endangered wetlands, the Poe Web Site to expand, or the curator at the museum to accept a show.

A wavering audience has no bias. Uncommitted audiences may not know much about an issue and are often interested in learning more so they can make up their minds. Since the audience has no bias, the writer wants to show where peoples' biases should lay and wants to convince using every available strategy.

Consider a job application. The personnel director has no preference other than hiring the best person for the position. In an interview, the prospective employee wants to show the director the logic behind hiring him versus anyone else. The benefits to the company and the track record are emphasized. Also, he establishes credibility, showing knowledge of subject matter, maintaining a reasonable demeanor, and citing references and bonuses earned for exceptional work. Finally, he uses words and examples from job experiences that emotionally excite the director. If two or three candidates have similar resumes and references, who'll get the job? The one that leaves the best impression. Is this the time for a heavy-handed appeal to emotion? No. This is subtler; the use of emotion is always reasonable and always appropriate.

A hostile audience has a bias against one's position. Apathetic, skeptical, or committed, the hostile audience creates an almost impossible challenge. Bivouacked in the opposition's camp, it does not want to change its mind; emotionally committed to another set of values, assumptions, and images of what is right and wrong, it may not even take one seriously. What's the most one can hope to accomplish in such a group? Maybe, just maybe, a few will become more tolerant of or at least see the logic in another viewpoint. An emotional appeal would be disastrous in such a setting where the audience might think it sentimental or even comical. Instead, the writer must weigh the essay heavily in favor of logic and credibility, especially, knowledge of subject matter.

1.4.1. The Use of Appeals as Strategies

Based on the above, a simple yet effective chart can be developed showing the relationship between the three major appeals and their potential audiences:

	Hostile	Wavering	Supportive
Logos	✓	✓	—
Ethos	✓	✓	—
Pathos	—	✓	✓✓

When approaching a hostile audience, the student should use logical (*logos*) and ethical (*ethos*) appeals and avoid any emotional words or examples (*pathos*). The strategy in

approaching a wavering audience should be to use all three appeals, being careful not to make too strong of an emotional appeal. Finally, before a supportive audience, it may be important to use some initial logic to focus the already emotionally committed audience, but then it's time to use highly charged, emotive words and examples to move the committed to action.

1.5. Persuasive Thesis: Very Different from an Informative One

Sometimes confusion develops over how to write a persuasive thesis or, more accurately, a thesis for a persuasive essay. Remember this Study Guide's introductory section on issues and the example over whether or not to order a pizza or to cook a chicken and rice dish at home? This choice is, essentially, the issue: what the problem is. The thesis is the answer. In this simple example, one might argue the following: Although we all love chicken and rice, tonight we should order a pizza. The essay would prove why pizza is the best choice *tonight*.

Note that under such a thesis, the writer might describe the mouth-watering attributes of a pizza in order to convince the audience, but the thesis is not: Pizzas are good. This would develop an informative essay. Instead, the issue focuses around the word *tonight*. Why pizza tonight? This is the argument. That pizzas are good is already agreed upon or they would not be considered.

1.5.1. Types of claims

Nancy Wood takes an analytical look at the thesis or claim in her text, *Perspectives on Argument*, breaking its possibilities and characteristics down into parts or categories (Just as any good analysis should!). She names five categories and shows what questions they answer. Many students find these helpful.

- 1) ***Claims of Fact:*** Did it happen? Does it exist? For example, after 9/11, some people still wonder why one of the hijacked airplanes crashed in Pennsylvania. Did citizens fight to take control of the ship and, in the melee, the plane crashed? Did one of the terrorists, perhaps the pilot, when he learned of the mission, scuttle the plane? Did the U.S. Air Force shoot it down?

A claim of fact would argue what happened based on evidence including facts, statistics, real examples, and testimony.

- 2) ***Claims of Definition:*** What is it? How should we define it? After 9/11, the word *terrorist* takes on new meaning in the press and in Washington. Who is and who is not a terrorist? Someone who might have aided and abetted the eighteen Al Qaeda members on their death mission? A foot soldier such as John Walker Lindh who fought for Al Qaeda in Afghanistan? A rebel soldier in Sri Lanka, Colombia, or the Philippines, who is not in any way associated with Al Qaeda, allied with forces opposed to their country's governments and U.S. interests and influence?

A claim of definition relies on references to well-established sources and authorities that can make hairline distinctions that make sense out of chaos.

- 3) ***Claims of Cause:*** What caused it? Or what are its effects? Some people point to the conflict in Palestine and U.S. support of Israel as the underlying reason for 9/11? Others point to a broader U.S. policy, which sometimes supports foreign governments both totalitarian and democratic with questionable human rights records. Still others see the U.S. as the guiltless victim of fanatics who can gain prestige or save face through terrorism.

A claim of cause requires factual data and statistics and often uses historical analogies and comparisons as well as a strong inductive argument.

- 4) ***Claims of Value:*** Is it good or bad? What criteria will help us decide? Some thought that amid the horror of 9/11 some good emerged: the unity of a fragmented nation. Others think it a horrible loss and, unfortunately, we haven't learned a thing. Currently, government plans to enlist citizens as spies against their neighbors, reporting odd activities, have many thinking the nation has been pushed to hysteria and to the reality of George Orwell's visions of Big Brother in 1984.

Claims of value need to stress shared beliefs and work deductive arguments from major premises that people hold dear such as equal rights and opportunities, freedom of expression, and privacy.

- 5) ***Claims of Policy:*** What should we do about it? What should be our future course of action? Some thought 9/11 created a much needed opportunity to review the wisdom of a unilateral foreign policy. Others thought it an opportunity to bolster U.S. military might and to redefine our national defense strategies. Still others are in favor of limiting or curtailing due process and the legal rights of citizens and legal immigrants "suspected" of being terrorists.

Claims of policy also stress values and often a vision of what the result will be using facts, statistics, analogies, and examples to paint a picture that others can visualize.

After finding a topic and exploring the issues associated with it, pick an issue which interests you, then apply one of the five types of claims Wood describes to develop your claim.

For another look at the persuasive/argumentative thesis or claim, turn to the Argumentation Section of this study guide.

1.6. Checklists: Emotional, Ethical, Logical

1.6.1. Checklist: Emotional Appeal

1. Which words in the essay are primarily emotive or neutral? Overall, if words are neutral, how can they be replaced by words with more color and suggestion, more negative and positive connotations?
2. Are words associated with the opposition too obviously negative? Or are they subtly colored in a negative connotation? If too obviously negative, what words would be more like a chisel and less like a sledgehammer?
3. What overall emotional impression (tone) does the essay have? Is it angry, thoughtful, concerned, matter-of-fact, melancholy, upset, inspiring, etc.?
4. In what ways does the emotional impression remain constant over the course of the paper? Or does it shift? If it shifts, does it do so for a reason?
5. If the audience is wavering, where is the emotional appeal strong? Or too strong?
6. If the audience is supportive, in what ways is the emotional appeal strong enough? Or not strong enough?
7. If the audience is hostile, is an emotional appeal there at all? If so, why?
8. Which are the emotional examples in the text? Could there be other examples that are just as relevant but carry more impact?
9. Which examples are peppered with emotional language? Is it appropriate for the audience?
10. How might the emotional appeal go over some undefined line of what is appropriate? Does it toe the edge? Or is it too far from it?

1.6.2. Checklist: Ethical Appeal

1. When does the essay sound reasonable? When are the moments when it doesn't? Which words or examples are so extreme that they call credibility into question?
2. What is the common ground with the opposition?
 - An assumption?
 - A reason?
 - A fact?
 - A common belief?
 Where was it granted in the essay? If not, why not?
3. What more instances of common ground might be granted?
4. Where does knowledge of the subject matter shine through? What are the
 - Statistics?
 - Facts?
 - Surveys?
 - Examples?
 - Personal Anecdotes?
5. What other relevant information would add to the argument and boost the perception that the writer is knowledgeable?
6. Has any relevant information been ignored? If so, is it due to a personal bias or prejudice? Is the writer being intellectually honest? What would happen to credibility if a hostile or wavering audience were to question its absence?

7. What books, laws, contracts, or other authoritative documents would bolster the argument? If some are present, which are quoted or paraphrased?
8. Which experts or secondary sources support the thesis? Are there others who have been left out? What evidence of research exists?
9. Which names of sources are household words? If none, are their names, titles, and, if appropriate, publications noted to establish their expertise?
Which are quoted or paraphrased?
How might a bibliography help the claim?
Which sources might a hostile or even a wavering audience recognize as biased?
10. What recent developments in the topic make some sources' opinions dated?
Where might there be other sources with more currency?

1.6.3. Checklist: Logical Appeal

(Also see checklists on induction and deduction)

1. Where does the essay employ induction? Deduction? Does it do so consistently?
2. What major premise based on universal truths, excepted maxims, truisms, or laws was developed in support of the thesis?
3. What were the individual instances (minor premises) and conclusions that followed?
4. What additional evidence is needed to support the thesis? What can be done to support the inductive leap?
5. After reviewing a list of them, what logical fallacies are in the argument?
6. Number the paragraphs in the essay. Which paragraphs show evidence of cause and effect reasoning?
Illustration?
Exemplification?
Definition?
Comparisons?
Contrasts?
Analogy?
Classification?
Process?
7. If the essay consistently applies only one pattern of development, what is it? If so, which points might be made more interesting and effective by applying a different approach?

2. CRITICAL ANALYSIS

An analysis breaks down something into its component parts to study them and to understand their effects. For example, a mechanic may examine the exhaust, cooling, and electrical systems of a car to discover each one's effect upon performance. Likewise, a student may examine the evidence, reasoning, and underlying beliefs in an argument to discover how well they support a thesis. Just as the cooling system of a car may be perfect or less than perfect, so might the logic of a point in an essay be sound or unsound.

Although the car analogy has its limitations, note another important similarity. A car consists of more than exhaust, cooling, and electrical systems; for example, fuel economy, handling, and reliability might be examined or interior fabrics, space, and amenities. The list can go on and on. Likewise, the three appeals or the structure of an essay might be analyzed, as might the tone, audience, and diction. Again, the lists of component parts, which could be examined, are many and varied and depend upon the scope and purpose of the analysis.

The distinction between analysis and argument is important: an analysis looks at someone else's written position on a debatable topic. As such, it is an examination of another writer's argument and how effectively or ineffectively a claim is stated and supported, not an opportunity for a writer to assert his or her opinion about the same topic. In fact, for the analysis to feature the writer's ideas and his own support for them is to expose his or her biases and to undermine the impartiality of the analysis. Consequently, the writer's position on the issue is not wanted, whereas a clear, fair appraisal of another's thoughts is. So, to analyze effectively, one must put aside biases and opinions and approach another's argument without prejudice. Think of a judge. His role is not to attack his enemies or to support his friends, but to impartially review a case. Bias will only cloud decision-making, not support it; consequently, the judges most admired and respected are those who can put aside their prejudices and clearly weigh the pros and cons of a case. These are the qualities of a good analyst as well.

2.1. Possible Topics of Essay Analysis

The examination of an essay, a hard look at the performance of its components, may include many topics of analysis. Some of the more common include

- | | | | |
|----------------|-----------|-----------|---------------|
| * Thesis | * Purpose | * Bias | * Development |
| * Organization | * Persona | * Tone | * Diction |
| * Audience | * Appeals | * Support | |

2.2. How to Analyze Depends upon Audience

Who will read an analysis determines the depth of an analysis, topics of analysis, and its organization. Purpose and audience in analysis can be broken down into two camps:

- To explain or argue something to an uninformed reader
- To explain or argue something to the informed reader

The uninformed reader is someone who might be aware of a topic or a text but has not read or studied it. A review of Disney's film *Pocahontas* or Tony Morrison's book *Beloved*, when each first came out, or a travel piece on a rain forest tour in Costa Rica would assume such a reader. Written to an audience that has no in-depth knowledge of the subject, the analysis examines most any category the author thinks important and the writer may or may not express

an opinion. The essay gives a summary or description of the topic (film, book, story, essay, place, etc.), so the reader can understand or picture what is being discussed, and the writer may choose to interest or to dampen a reader's enthusiasm. For example, the analysis might conclude *Pocahontas* disappoints or sizzles, that one must read *Beloved*, or that the rain forest tour in Costa Rica offers the trip of a lifetime.

Such an analysis consists of three major sections:

- Introduction: to set up the rhetorical situation, naming the author, essay, place, or subject; and signaling the direction of the student's critical opinion;
- Overview: to give a fair-minded review, even a summary, of the text or subject;
- Examination: to review topics of analysis, which, to the writer, seem most important.

The informed reader is someone who is well aware of a topic or a text and may have his or her own opinions of it. After seeing the Oscar-winning film *American Beauty* together, a couple might discuss it over coffee, each with their own opinion of why the protagonist died. Also, two people might have very different interpretations of the role of the next-door neighbor and each can support his or her positions with facts from the movie; if so, these are mini analyses. Both have studied an issue and come to different conclusions. Of course, interpretations of Morrison's *Beloved* or of the value of a rainforest tour in Costa Rica could also differ. We run into different opinions than ours daily in academics, at work, in play, with family, at church, and in neighborhood associations. For example, at work, a peer thinks we should change the location of the office. He presents his argument, and we listen to it. Does it make sense? If Marilyn doesn't think so, she has to show its shortcomings through an analysis of the proposal.

The rhetorical challenge presented by the informed audience remains dynamic because the audience is active, not passive. The informed reader knows the issue and, whether expressed or not, may have an opinion. In Marilyn's case, she must not only analyze, but also persuade both her boss and her coworkers that it is not a good idea to move the office. This rhetorical situation occurs daily. A deacon wants to add a third service on Sunday, the politician wants a toll road down the middle of the Katy Freeway, and the neighbor wants security cameras around the pool to videotape vandals: each make proposals that will affect our lives or our pocketbooks. If the issue is important, we must determine whether or not to accept someone's position on it. This is analysis. An understanding of an argument's content, a review of it, is the first step, but the important second step and the type of analysis developed in this text, breaks the argument apart so that we can determine if we can agree with a proposal fully, partially, or not at all, and states why in clean, clear prose.

In the analyses that follow, assume the audience to be informed.

2.3.What to Analyze Depends Upon Purpose

So how does one know which topic to analyze: should it be the thesis, persona, audience, or appeals? Or all four? But what about support and tone? Or bias? The topics and combination of topics one can examine are endless. Theoretically, one could analyze an essay using each of the topics listed in this guide, but is that necessary? Seldom. Understanding what to analyze depends upon what one wants to know, which depends upon the generality or specificity of the purpose.

General purposes of analytic essays, in order of complexity, include:

- * Identification
- * Effects
- * Strengths and Weaknesses

Identification: In the identification analysis, the writer discovers the presence of one or more topics of analysis. For example, the writer might discover the thesis and prove why it is the thesis, additionally showing its single expression in an essay or its initial statement and restatement throughout. Similarly, dominant and subordinate patterns of development and/or methods of organization might be discovered and proven to be present. In the same manner, appeals (emotional, ethical, and logical), levels of diction, figurative language, evidence, and/or any other category could be shown to exist or not.

Effects: A more complex approach is to not only identify the topic of analysis, but to show its effect or effects upon some stated objective such as unity, coherence, or development. As such, one not only identifies the presence of the extreme and shifting tones in Maya Angelou's "Graduation," but also shows how the extremities and shifts subtly support the thesis, which pertains to the resiliency and strength of African-Americans in the face of adversity.

Similarly, one not only identifies the associative logic in Joan Didion's "On Going Home," but shows how it reinforces the incoherence and tradeoffs she sees in modern family life. In the same manner, one identifies the lack of evidence in support of an inductive argument and shows how it affects the development of a particular point in support of the expansion of off-shore fishing rights or a claim that immigration should be limited to political refugees.

Strengths and Weaknesses: The next level of analysis is more evaluative, for example, first identifying, then showing the effects of the tone, a method of organization, or a lack of evidence, then comparing the effectiveness of each and declaring it a strength or weakness in the development of the claim or thesis.

For example, when analyzing A.M. Rosenthal's essay "The Case for Slavery," an essay against drug use, students readily identify the very strong emotional appeal, a consistent but simple logical thread, and a very limited use of ethical appeal strategies. Consequently, through identification, they accurately note the essay addresses a supportive audience. However, if the same essay is analyzed with the purpose of revealing whether or not its thesis is proven, one sees it in a different light. The logic in the essay, although convincing, (for example, the essay compares drug addiction to the slavery of African-Americans) when examined, is a false analogy, and many of the assumptions about drug use and abuse are equally as questionable.

Finally, little or no evidence supports his claim. This is an emotional harangue. The analysis of audience and the three appeals does not focus upon an essay's veracity. One that examines its assumptions, bias, reasoning, and evidence does.

In another essay on drug use, the assumptions may be identified, examined, and found to be acceptable and therefore strengths, a couple of isolated cases of reasoning flawed and declared a weakness, but the evidence, relevant and accurate, and thought to be a strength. Overall, the essay is evaluated to be a strong one.

2.4. Organization of an Analysis

Organization of an analysis is a very simple but important skill. After the introduction and thesis are stated, the topics of analysis, the categories and/or subcategories to be examined, must be stated in the topic sentence of each of paragraph. Throughout the paragraph, the writer should repeat the key word *logical* and any subcategories such as inductive or deductive. For example, in an analysis of the three appeals, when discussing the presence or absence of a logical appeal, the writer should plainly and forthrightly state in a topic sentence:

One of the reasons this essay addresses a wavering audience is due to a strong logical appeal. Many examples of inductive as well as deductive logic develop the thesis. Some examples of the most prominent uses of induction include...

The paragraph would go on to site examples of inductive reasoning. If many, a new paragraph might be used to introduce the use of deductive logic. If few, deduction would be introduced in the same paragraph and examples of it would follow. A new paragraph might then introduce patterns of logic, fallacies, and rebuttals and examples showing their presence.

It is essential to let the reader know very directly what is being examined, both the category (for example, logic) and the subcategory (induction) so that he or she can follow what is being examined. This applies to all analyses. In an analysis, the writer essentially breaks a topic down into categories and subcategories and examines them. This is a complex task. To not alert the reader of the name of what is being examined is the gravest flaw an analyst can make. In seconds, the reader is lost. To not repeat key words to keep the reader on the logical path of one's argument, is also a grave error.

Specific purposes of different analytic essays include the examination of

- * Appeals and Audience
- * Support for a Thesis or Claim

These are by no means the only purposes that an analysis can have, but they are two of the more common approaches, focusing on one topic or a combination of analytical topics that are closely aligned.

2.5. Analysis: Examining Audience and Appeals

An analysis which focuses upon the three appeals would examine the

- * Emotional Appeal (*Pathos*)
- * Ethical Appeal (*Ethos*)
- * Logical Appeal (*Logos*)

This analysis would not only identify and substantiate, but also look at the strengths and weaknesses of each appeal and/or determine which audience (hostile, wavering, or supportive) they were collectively addressing. The thesis might declare the intended audience while the essay's body points, organized by appeal, would support the claim—that the audience is either hostile, wavering, or supportive—through induction.

2.5.1. Audience

Whom did the writer have in mind when he or she wrote the text? Although we have been looking at audience in terms of its relationship to the three appeals, audience incorporates many more factors including:

- | | | | |
|-------------|------------------|------------------|----------------|
| * Age | * Sex | * Bias | * Education |
| * Culture | * Sophistication | * Specialization | * Expectation |
| * Geography | * Number | * Need | * Relationship |

An analysis of audience could examine the tone and the diction used in a work to determine which if any of the above categories seem to be addressed. For example, a limited vocabulary might mean a younger or less educated audience. A use of technological terms might indicate a specialized and/or educated audience. Certain regionalisms might indicate a geographic audience such as one in New England or in Louisiana while the use of figurative language could indicate a more sophisticated and cultured audience.

An analysis of audience can also be very specific. For example, writers addressing a controversial issue know their audience's bias. Therefore, to persuade the audience, they balance the use of emotional, logical, and ethical appeals based on whether the audience is hostile to, supportive of, or wavering on their position. In analyzing an essay on a controversial issue, a student weighs whether or not each of the three appeals are fully developed or not and determines the author's perceived stance on the audience's bias based on the presence or absence of appeals.

For instance, a very strong emotional appeal accompanied by little use of logic and only a perfunctory development of credibility would indicate a supportive audience. An essay with strong logical and ethical appeals with little or no use of emotional language would indicate a hostile audience. The essay with all three appeals points to a wavering audience. See chart under Audience in the Persuasion Section of this booklet, and see the next subsection on Appeals.

2.5.2. Appeals

An analysis of the three appeals determines whether or not an appeal is made to emotion, to logic, and/ or to credibility (ethics). These categories have been described in great detail in the Persuasion Section of this text and should be reviewed before attempting an analysis.

An Emotional Appeal is present only if a critic (the student) discovers enough evidence to conclude that the writer uses emotion as a tool to persuade. A few words and examples are not enough. Good writers use emotional words and examples whether making an appeal or not. What the critic must find is a pattern. To prove an emotional appeal's presence, emotional words, ones with negative connotations (for example, *politician*), must be shown to consistently be associated with the opposition, while positive words (*statesman*) are used consistently to support the writer's position. The lack of emotional words (*public representative*) and/or the lack of any pattern would be evidence to help prove the lack of an emotional appeal.

The examples used could also be important. Ones which elicit an emotional response (for example, a sex scandal) are potentially part of an emotional appeal. If accompanied by the use of emotional words, examples are no longer presented simply to inform, but to persuade emotionally. Being able to identify and show a pattern of emotional words and examples is necessary to prove this appeal. Being able to show a paucity of emotional language and examples or an inconsistency in the use of emotional words (for example, positively connotative words associated with the opposition) proves the appeal's absence.

An Ethical Appeal is present, as above, when it can be proven that the appeal has been consistently used as a tool to persuade. On the other hand, the critic would prove the appeal does not exist when he or she could show it is not used consistently. As discussed in detail in the Persuasion Section, the criteria to be analyzed in an appeal to credibility include:

- * Common Ground
- * Knowledge of Subject Matter
- * Reasonable Tone
- * Outside Authorities

An analysis finds evidence or the lack of evidence in each category and, adding it up, determines whether or not an appeal has been used. Note that the presence or lack of common ground is not a determining factor. Some issues, such as racism or sexism, may not have common ground.

A Logical Appeal exists by the same criteria. In this case, the analysis would find the consistent presence of logic or the lack of it by examining the following:

- * Inductive Reasoning
- * Deductive Reasoning
- * The Expression of these forms of reasoning in Patterns of Logical
- * Development (cause and effect, compare and contrast, exemplification, definition, etc.)
- * Refutations of Counter-Arguments (refutation, concession, rebuttal)
- * Logical Fallacies

Analysis of the Appeals to Determine Audience: After examining the presence or absence of each of the three appeals, one can determine the position (hostile, wavering, or supportive) of the audience. To understand this further, see chart under Audience in the Persuasion Section of this booklet and see the previous subsection on Audience.

The Use of Appeals in King's "Letter from Birmingham Jail"

A look at King's "Letter from Birmingham Jail" can be instructive. In this sample outline, the evidence is not listed and the supporting points are merely asserted, not proven.

Outline

Thesis Statement: Although one might think Martin Luther King, Jr., would perceive the white clergymen who wrote "A Call for Unity" a hostile audience, he wisely answers them as if they were, not ardent segregationists, but a wavering audience unaware of the entire argument.

- I. *Ethos*: A strong ethical appeal is mounted establishing credibility
 - A. Many Outside Authorities (examples of experts, texts, and laws; Historical figures who have been in similar positions)
 - B. Reasonable Tone throughout (examples from text)
 - C. Common Ground (examples from text)
 - D. Knowledge of Subject Matter (examples from text)
 - E. Add up evidence: King works very hard to meet every criteria of an ethical appeal
- II. *Logos*: A strong logical appeal is also present.
 - A. Many instances of Deductive Reasoning (based on truisms and laws)
 - B. Ample Inductive Reasoning (examples in text)
 - C. Patterns of Development: Every paragraph follows one (examples)
 - D. Rebuttals: Each point made in Birmingham clergymen's letter is systematically rebutted over the length of the essay (examples)
 - E. Logical fallacies: King works hard to avoid them
 - F. Add up the evidence: Use of logic is consistent and persuasive
- III. *Pathos*: A strong emotional appeal
 - A. Emotional words often focused around particular points (examples)
 - B. Emotional examples throughout (examples)
 - C. Add up evidence: Very emotional without losing reasonable tone
- IV. Inductive conclusion: King addresses a wavering audience due to the consistent use of all three appeals; he sees clergy and their congregations as moderates.

To better understand the topics an appeals' analysis examines, read the Persuasion Section. Having read how to make an appeal and how to balance them to reach certain audiences, one shouldn't find it difficult to make the switch from writing a persuasive paper to critiquing one.

2.6. Analysis: Examining Support for a Thesis or a Claim

A revealing strength and weakness analysis is one that examines the support a writer presents to back his or her claim. When reading a particularly difficult piece or one that addresses a controversial issue, one should examine the support in order to determine if the claim has merit. Topics of analysis that reveal an essay's strengths and weaknesses include:

- * Bias
- * Support (Assumptions, Reasoning, and / or Evidence)

Bias: Since most writers have a bias, the questions become

- * What is the bias?
- * What is the author's stake in the argument?
- * Is the writer's evidence reliable?

To discover bias, look at a writer's interests, profession, and concerns. For example, an American history professor writing about Disney's film, *Pocahontas*, would probably be using his skills as a historian to judge the film's merits. Likewise, a hat-maker conducting a fashion review might be particularly concerned with critiquing what appears on the models' heads. The Marxist would be concerned with the relationships between labor and management in Dickens' *Hard Times*, and the conservationist would focus on particular areas of a president's energy policy.

To follow up on an earlier example, an expert in nuclear waste employed by a power company may have a bias towards his industry and place of employment. After all, if he wants to stay employed, he would be foolish to write about the industry's sins: he has a stake in the industry's future. Admittedly, just because a writer is employed by a party in the debate does not mean he'll slant evidence or try to deceive. On the other hand, the history of the scientists employed by the tobacco industry to obscure information about the effects of tobacco smoking and to undermine studies that linked smoking with cancer are testimony to the fact that people employed by an industry or any other organization with a great deal of money at risk in a debate may not be an accurate source of information. Therefore, it's always a good idea to find out an author's background and to discover what his or her organization's investment is in the discussion.

2.6.1. Evidence

An efficient analysis of a claim's support examines

- * Evidence
- * Reasoning
- * Assumptions or Warrants

Evidence can be studied by using the criteria mentioned in the Evidence subsection of the Argument Section of this study guide. In this subsection a number of categories of evidence are defined and explained and the qualities evidence should have are discussed in detail. To briefly sum up this information and apply it to analysis, an examination of the evidence would include three steps:

- 1) Identifying the evidence
- 2) Categorizing the evidence
- 3) Evaluating the evidence

Identifying the evidence involves discovering it.

Categorizing the evidence involves breaking it down into classifications. These include:

- * Examples
- * Statistics and Samples
- * Known Facts and Shared Beliefs
- * Common Knowledge
- * Personal Experience
- * Observation and Experiments
- * Testimony of Experts

After completing this step, the analysis might discuss whether or not the evidence is balanced or relies solely on one or two categories. Sometimes it may be appropriate for evidence to only be in a couple categories and sometimes this may be a weakness.

For instance, an essay on forestry might develop its support based on common knowledge and personal experience. An analysis might point to the strength of the evidence as the information presented in these categories and the weakness as the lack of evidence provided in other categories. In such a public and visual industry, it might be argued that examples, statistics, known facts, and observations could have been presented to bolster support for the claim. However, in an essay on Thomas Paine's use of argumentative techniques in "Common Sense," examples and known facts might be all the information necessary or even available, and an analysis should acknowledge this.

Evaluating evidence should be based on its meeting certain criteria. All evidence should be

- * Relevant
- * Representative
- * Accurate
- * Specific and Detailed
- * Sufficient
- * Current (if a current issue)

If the evidence presented in any of the categories does not meet these standards, it should be assessed as a weakness and may undermine the credibility of the writer and/or his or her thesis. If evidence consistently meets standards, it should be acknowledged as a strength, adding to the credibility of the argument.

2.6.2. Reasoning

Reasoning can be examined by analyzing the soundness of the logical arguments presented in an essay. Reasoning and logic have been defined and explained in detail in the Persuasion Section of this guidebook and the discovery of the major categories has been discussed in the previous subsection on Appeals. The point of an analysis of reasoning is to

not only point out its presence but to discern whether or not the reasoning is sound and acceptable.

An analysis of reasoning focuses on

- * Induction
- * Deduction
- * Patterns of Logical Development
- * Rebuttals
- * Logical Fallacies

Inductive Reasoning must demonstrate sufficient evidence (meeting all the criteria discussed above) to justify the inductive leap, which the audience is expected to make, resulting in an appropriate conclusion. No major evidence or inconsistencies should be omitted or avoided. Given the evidence, the conclusion should make sense, being neither too grand, nor too modest.

Deductive Reasoning must be based on true major and minor premises with a conclusion, which follows from the premises presented. The analysis should pay special attention to the truth of the major premise or truism stated as the shared belief upon which the balance of the reasoning rests. If this truism is not always applicable or lacking in any way, it should be declared a weakness and the conclusion or conclusions which follow it declared unsound. To see the many ways a syllogism may be manipulated to be less than sound, see the Logic chapter in a grammar text.

Patterns of Logical Development are the manifestation of inductive and deductive reasoning in simple patterns, which students can readily identify. These patterns, such as cause and effect, definition, compare and contrast, and exemplification, are described in the Logic section of this study guide and in most grammar books under the topic of paragraph development. As noted in the inductive and deductive sections above, the patterns must be complete and / or sound.

Rebuttals of opposition points in essays should be fair and sound. When analyzing a rebuttal, the opposition point should include who believes it, what is believed, and why; and it should stand alone as a sentence. A clear negation of the opposition point should follow, being the topic sentence of the rebuttal paragraph. The rebuttal itself should consist of an analysis of the evidence, reasoning, and assumptions behind the opposition's support, identifying and evaluating flaws, which discredit the opposition's position by pointing out its weaknesses. If a rebuttal merely negates the opposition and shouts back at it, repeating arguments used or unused in support of the writer's contention, it is ineffective and a weakness in the essay. If the claim of the opposition is not clearly or completely presented, the rebuttal is also flawed, just as it is if the efforts to discredit are insufficient. To understand this completely, see Rebuttal subsection in Argument Section.

Logical fallacies, mistakes in logic, are unacceptable. Often used to deceive an audience, the effects of a fallacy should be pointed out, showing how they attempt to steer an audience from the real issue and/or to trick it into following prejudices or into thinking

something that is either irrelevant or untrue. Beginning writers often see more fallacies than really exist, so an analysis should be very careful to accurately name the fallacy (*post hoc*, either/or, slippery slope, bandwagon, argument to the person, etc.) and to prove that it is indeed the fallacy in question, showing how it fits the definition. Once the fallacy is proven to exist, the writer should show its attempted effects and, depending upon its seriousness, declare it a minor or major weakness in the argument. If appropriate, the writer may show how the presence of one or more fallacies undermines the credibility of the author who would use them and the argument that would be so weak as to need fallacies to develop it.

If problems in logical reasoning are not discovered and if logic is used to develop points in the essay, the analysis should proclaim logic to be one of the essay's strengths. Of course, some categories and individual instances of logic might be faultless and others suspect. In such cases, the analysis should acknowledge both the strengths and the weaknesses by point or by category.

2.6.3. Warrants

Warrants are the underlying values and beliefs that remain unstated and form the important link between a claim or an assertion and its support. For example, if someone states, "Let's have chicken for dinner," and her friend says, "We had chicken for lunch," what's the unstated belief or warrant? Apparently, the friend finds it undesirable to eat chicken twice in one day or perhaps, any food twice in one day. Then again, she may be only against eating the same food in two successive meals. We are not one hundred percent sure, but know it could be any three of these since the friend didn't think it necessary to explain herself. We speak and write this way all the time. In fact, to state warrants directly takes the fun out of communication. To say, "We had chicken for lunch" without explaining the warrant challenges the listener figure out the connection and enlivens the conversation. Conversely, to discover warrants is detective work, looking for the real motivations, the beliefs and values beneath the surface that reveal the real story.

Going back to our pizza example, if one wants pizza tonight because it is *easier* than the alternative, a number of warrants exist behind the seemingly simple and convincing reason: easier. First of all, it is assumed easier is better tonight. Why? Perhaps the unstated assumption is that everyone is tired. Or that no one wants to work on preparing something more difficult, such as chicken and rice. Or that after a hard week, all are entitled to food prepared and delivered by someone else. Or that only pizza, not chicken and rice, can be ordered out and delivered. Notice that these beliefs and assumptions may or may not be true. Someone in favor of the chicken and rice dish may say he's not that tired and is willing to cook. Someone else may know of a new Cajun restaurant that delivers chicken and rice, not the same recipe, but a good one. Suddenly, two of the warrants, the beliefs, behind *easier*, one of the strongest supporting points in favor of pizza, have been shown to be false.

We have all experienced this kind of a debate at home, but of course, we never put labels, such as warrants, on the underlying beliefs, values and assumptions behind the use of reasons.

How could the *easier* point have been more successfully developed? The person in favor of it should have checked his warrants to make sure what seemed obvious was really the case. Canvassing others to see if they really were too tired to cook and knowing all the delivery possibilities in the neighborhood were important to know before concluding *easier* would be an acceptable supporting point.

Warrants cannot be avoided. They are embedded in every point in support of a claim, and to be persuasive, one must be sure that one's warrants are acceptable; and to be a critical thinker, one must make sure that others warrants are acceptable, also.

In the argument on gun control, the National Rifle Association acknowledges that rifles kill, but it claims they are not a threat to most citizens. One of the NRA's underlying beliefs or warrants is that rifles are acceptable firearms because they are used primary to kill game, such as deer, not people. Advocates of gun control might find such a warrant naive or suspect in light of mass killing incidents using rifles, such as the one at Columbine High School in Littleton, Colorado. Consequently they would declare the warrant that rifles are not a threat to citizens into question.

An analysis of warrants closely examines the unexpressed but implicit beliefs and values behind the use of evidence. After isolating these warrants, the analysis would study their appropriateness and, if wanting, declare them weaknesses. If they were acceptable, it would declare them strengths. When writing synonyms for the word *warrants*, students might refer to them as "unstated beliefs" or "unexpressed values" or hidden assumptions": combinations of words that alert the reader to the fact that these are not in the text, but buried within it.

2.6.4. Organization

The support analysis can be organized either of two ways: point-by-point or topic-by- topic. In very short essays, it is often easier and more effective for students to identify each of an essay's major points and to examine the bias, assumptions, reasoning, and evidence in each. In a longer essay, the subject-by-subject approach is more effective.

Support in King's "Letter from Birmingham Jail"

Outline

Thesis Statement: Martin Luther King, Jr.'s "Letter from Birmingham Jail" consistently supports its thesis and major points, such that the reader leaves the essay well informed and satisfied that he or she understands the issues.

- I. Bias: Direct and obvious—he's an African-American leader
 - A. His leadership does not seem to be at stake as much as his position as a man battling the restrictions of a segregated society (evidence)
 - B. Since most evidence is based on general knowledge or events that can be readily verified, it does not appear to be distorted. (examples)
 - C. Strength: racial bias gives credibility rather than discrediting it
- II. Warrants: Beyond obvious ones such as all men are created equal and segregation is wrong, King's arguments and their support are based on a number of hidden beliefs and values.
 - A. On waiting (examples)
 - B. On role of white moderates and churches and their leaders (examples)
 - C. On unjust laws (examples)
 - D. Truisms that begin deductive arguments (examples)
 - E. Strength: His unstated values and beliefs are safe and would be commonly accepted by all but the avowed racist
- III. Reasoning: Present in every paragraph and a unifying factor throughout essay
 - A. Deduction: Major and minor premises true. Conclusions sound. (examples)

- B. Induction: No hasty generalizations. Sufficient evidence. (examples)
- C. Rebuttals: fair (examples)
- D. Patterns of logical development: effectively executed (examples)
- E. Logical fallacies: none apparent (examples)
- F. Strength: No noticeable faults in logic
- IV. Evidence: Varied and Complete
 - A. Types: examples, known facts, common knowledge, personal experience
 - B. Qualities: relevant, representative, accurate, sufficient, detailed
 - C. Strength: knows sensitive issues need more support than others

Not all essays are as well-written as King's; although we might have quibbled with a few of King's premises or with the sufficiency of evidence, this essay is extremely detailed, supported, developed, and complete.

In some essays, the bias of the author may interfere with the accurate or representative reporting of information or an assumption in support of a claim may be no more valid than an opposing one. Sometimes the reasoning may be flawed or the evidence may be insufficient or not representative. In such cases, the analysis points out the specific deficiency and weighs whether or not the problem undermines or just damages the credibility of

- (1) a particular point
- (2) the thesis
- (3) the purpose of the essay.

Most flaws only undermine the overall effectiveness of an essay. Some, however, may discredit the argument so that it is not acceptable. In writing the conclusion of a support analysis, the writer weighs the strengths and weaknesses discovered and determines their overall effect.

To better understand the topics a support analysis examines, read the section on Classic Argumentation. As in the appeals analysis, an analysis of support can be understood by knowing how to write a good argument. The writer who knows how to make a contention based on correct assumptions, reasoning, and evidence finds it relatively easy to make the switch from using them in writing to analyzing them.

3. CLASSIC ARGUMENTATION

Although the effective use of the three appeals will improve the persuasiveness of any paper, an important question remains: How should one organize and present an argument which not only presents one's position but undermines the opposition as well? The answer lies in combining both persuasion and analysis.

Many argue that all writing is persuasive and essentially, an argument, that every time we write, we are attempting to make a point and to prove it. The ad that urges us to buy a Camaro, the letter to a friend suggesting he come visit for the summer, the memo to a boss telling her to stock more supplies in the warehouse, the note that says, "I love you," all make a point and have a purpose. Yes, these examples inform, but they also subtly and not so subtly persuade the audience of something.

The difference between the above examples and a paper that contends, "Congress should not only continue investing in the space station but increase America's share in the venture" is one of form. It looks different. It is also more complete, not only using appeals and strong evidence to support the claim, but counter-arguments, which analyze and undermine the arguments of those opposed to the writer's claim.

The classic argument consists of two major parts with subsections:

- * The Contention: In this part, the writer
 - * states the problem in an introduction,
 - * gives his or her solution to the problem (thesis or claim), and
 - * presents the evidence needed to support the claim.
- * The Refutation: In this part, the writer
 - * acknowledges not everyone agrees with the claim,
 - * accommodates opposition points which make sense, and
 - * refutes those opposition points which do not, by giving a thorough analysis of the flaws in the opposition's claims.

Be aware that the contention and the refutation and all their components do not have to be organized in any one particular way. Indeed, argumentative essays written by professionals and read for class may be creatively organized and presented in other sequences, often mixing refutations of opposing arguments into the contention or even dynamically placing one in an introduction; however, when first learning argument, most students find it easier and more effective to follow the classical scheme.

Why? When first learning to rebut an opponent's point, it is very easy to forget that the refutation is an analysis, not another chance to give even more reasons and evidence to support a claim (contention). Consequently, such rebuttals do not analyze; in fact, in the act of repeating what the writer believes, opposition points are not undermined by close analysis at all, but left intact, leaving the reader to wonder what if anything is wrong with them. Since the purpose of a rebuttal is show the opposition as flawed, this defeats the purpose of the refutation. To avoid this, most students find that if they write the contention first, they exhaust their contention; so when it comes to the refutation, they notice if they slip into contention by seeing the repetition of earlier arguments and can get back to the task at hand, which, in the refutation, is analysis.

3.1. Classical Scheme of Argumentation

Contention

Introduction:

- * States problem, issue, controversy
- * Includes important background information and/or definitions
- * Makes claim (thesis, point, theme, contention, solution)
- * Does so in one or more paragraphs depending on problem and audience

Confirmation:

- * Develops three or more points supporting the claim
- * Uses clear, specific evidence to develop points
- * Employs appeals (depending upon the audience) to develop evidence
 - * Logical appeal using inductive and/or deductive reasoning
 - * Expressed in patterns of development
 - * Avoiding logical fallacies
- * Ethical Appeal using common ground, knowledge of subject matter, reasonable tone, and outside authorities
- * Emotional Appeal using connotative words and examples
- * Does so in as many paragraphs as necessary to develop points

Refutation

Concession:

- * Acknowledges opposing claims exist
- * Concedes opposing points which make sense and evidence which must be accommodated
- * Asserts that accommodated points and evidence are not enough
 - * To undermine the author's claim
 - * To justify opposition claims

Rebuttal:

- * States two or more opposition claims
 - * in sections devoted to each
 - * in one or more sentences for each
- * Negates the claim in a separate (topic) sentence
- * **Discredits opposition claim by analyzing its flaws**
 - * Points out assumptions, reasoning, and/or evidence and shows their faults
 - * Avoids mention of writer's own contention
- * Does so in paragraphs (one or more for each opposing claim to be discredited)
- * Proves opposing claims are seriously flawed and unacceptable

Conclusion:

- * Reasserts claim in new language; ties argumentative "strings" together.

3.1.1. Audience and the Refutation

When considering audience, some argue that the classic approach better addresses a wavering audience while a reverse ordering-refutation first, followed by contention, a Rogerian approach—more effectively addresses a hostile audience and is particularly useful when discussing differences directly with an opponent or when attempting to reach a compromise with one. The advantage of first focusing upon analysis (refutation), showing the differences in thinking processes (logic), underlying beliefs and values (warrants), and evidence, rather than what one wants (contention), is that it directly states up front the problems one has with the opposition so it, as an audience, can evaluate immediately the soundness of the analysis and hear the problems people have with its position. Maybe some of the warrants pointed out are not true; maybe, they are and the opposition did not realize it. To follow with the contention-an alternative approach to the issue-may now be more effective for it may have a better chance of being received and/or understood.

Discuss audience with your instructor. For the purposes of this Study Guide, it is thought more beneficial for students to develop contentions first in order to avoid confusion with refutations, which are really mini-analyses, because students have a tendency to avoid analysis and merely repeat their contention after introducing an opposition point and negating it. Once students have successfully written an argument to a wavering audience, learning to analyze opponents' points effectively, they are ready to take on a hostile audience more successfully.

3.2. The Contention

The contention may be called the claim, the argument, the confirmation, the thesis, or even the narrative in various grammatical texts, but its function is always the same: to state the problem being addressed (the issue), its solution (the thesis), and the evidence supporting the proposed solution.

How is a contention different from a Comp I essay? The answer lies in the details, even in such traditional sections as the introduction.

3.2.1. Introduction

An Introduction in any essay usually serves a number of purposes:

- Introduces the topic and issue
- Creates interest
- Gives necessary background information
- States the thesis or claim

The introduction in an argumentative essay does this also, focusing on the problem (situation or issue) to which the essay responds. It may need to define terms, cite a controversial incident, or even briefly summarize a situation. For example, if an essay were to address the growing problem of guns on high school campuses, the wave of shootings in schools across the country might be noted, focusing on the pathetic deaths of the fifteen students at Littleton, Colorado. In another case, an essay arguing whether or not Hamlet's hesitation is indicative of the modern condition might develop the fact that of all the plays written by Shakespeare, *Hamlet, Prince of Denmark* is the most often produced for stage and film.

It could note recent film efforts by Kenneth Branagh and Mel Gibson and statistics on their productions' successes at the box-office and in video markets.

The length of an introduction will depend upon an audience's knowledge of the issue and the nature of the problem. An essay on the validity of the space program might need a lengthy development because the controversy is less publicized; one on cloning humans might also need more length due to the need to define terms.

3.2.2. Thesis

The Thesis or claim, takes a stand on the issue in question, often proposing a solution or a best answer to the problem. Some examples include:

- ❖ Since the cloning of humans is inevitable, we should take steps now to license this work, severely punishing scientists who experiment without permission.
- ❖ As the ozone layer is depleted and global warming increases, our planet's well being, not GNP, should be the primary focus of every nation.
- ❖ Hamlet hesitates, not because he's indecisive, but because he values being righteous more than gaining revenge.

Notice that none of these theses, these claims, these solutions to problems or controversies, include a list of the points that prove the contention. Instead of a laundry list included in the thesis and developed afterwards, such as, "Wyatt Earp was brave, courageous, and bold" followed by three points, one each on his bravery, his courage, and his boldness, the argumentative thesis focuses on making one point. For instance, we might say, "Wyatt Earp was not just effective; in studying his days as a lawman, we discover him to be one of the most dangerous marshals ever to carry a gun." What's to be proven? What intrigues the reader? The word "dangerous." The reader hasn't a clue as to how this point will be developed and, consequently, is more interested than if he were told Wyatt Earp was "brave, courageous, and bold." When provided with the essay points, the reader votes on whether he's interested or not. When he's given a claim that's contentious, which sparks the imagination and seems difficult to prove, the reader doesn't think about voting. "Dangerous?" we ask ourselves? "How so?" We're hooked.

Does this mean it's wrong to include the essay points in a thesis? No, but it is often less effective. Think of the writer and the conventions used as a snake shedding a skin. Now, the writer has grown and, ready to move on to the next level, no longer needs those conventions first learned in junior high or high school.

Incidentally, even the sophisticated writer will sometimes find those essay points helpful to include in a thesis. For instance, when first writing on unfamiliar subjects, perhaps a literary essay, it might be useful for the writer to step back and say, "The setting, imagery, and symbolism in John Updike's 'A & P' show that it's an important step in maturation to stand up for a principle, no matter how trite." This essay will attempt to persuade the audience that the proposed theme for this short story is developed by the setting, the imagery, and, finally, the symbolism. Has the writer given away the analysis? Yes. But writing is a process, and on the next literary analysis, having gained confidence during the first, the writer can drop the analysis points from the thesis and once again surprise his readers as they follow the analysis in the text.

Developing a Thesis

Most textbooks explain how to develop an effective thesis. Two important points to remember are that this development is a process and that at the end of that process, a strong thesis will be specific and crystal clear in its position.

Let's review the process. It consists of brainstorming a topic, writing and rewriting possible claims, and becoming more and more specific. For the student wanting to write an essay on education, if we were to break this process down into some thoughts about the process, they might look like this:

- ❖ Since "education" is far too broad, further refinement is required to produce a good working thesis. Violence in our public school system is more specific, but even still, the topic is too broad. Perhaps focusing on students bringing guns to school would be more manageable.
- ❖ But who would say that students bringing guns to school is a good thing? Additionally, bringing guns to school is illegal, so what's the issue? What about this topic is controversial?
- ❖ How can an argumentative thesis be produced from this topic? One approach might be to suggest corrective action against those who are caught bringing guns to school. Or methods of preventing or minimizing the presence of guns on campus might be recommended.

After much thought, a **working thesis** is developed, one that may need further refinement before it reaches its final form: Metal detectors and unannounced locker searches should be implemented on all campuses to prevent students from bringing guns to school.

- ❖ What is controversial about this statement? For one thing, many students might think that unannounced locker searches are unconstitutional and invade privacy. Others may argue that guns could be slipped by metal detectors, adding that more guns might be present since kids might see a "challenge" in trying to sneak guns on campus.

One way to know if a thesis is truly contentious, to know if it really takes a stand on an important issue, is to examine what those opposed to the thesis might contend. The opposite thesis or **antithesis** should be just as clear and as authoritative as the thesis: Metal detectors and unannounced locker searches should not be implemented as a way to prevent students from bringing guns to school: these measures are an infringement on the right to privacy and would be ineffective in curtailing school violence.

A good argumentative paper would prove the thesis in its contention and work to disprove or accommodate the antithesis in its refutation. This would result in a unified, balanced, and cohesive argument. It is then up to the audience to weigh the opposing views. Of course, since the writer is controlling the argument through his or her contention and refutation, as well as using the three appeals, the audience should either be sold on the claim or, at least, persuaded to favorably consider it.

Placement of the thesis: Nine times out of ten, the best positioning lies at the end of the introduction because it emphatically lets the audience know the claim and direction of the essay, keeping supporting points unified and focused on the thesis. Perhaps, one time out of ten, when an argument is purely inductive, the thesis might be placed emphatically at the end of the contention, just before the refutation. When would this be appropriate? The best opportunity would be when the audience is familiar with the subject and where deep concern is felt. To have the reader make the inductive leap with the writer both dramatizes the point and satisfies the reader's growing interest and ongoing participation in the argument.

3.2.3. Checklist: Introduction and Thesis

1. How clear is the problem, issue, or controversy stated in the introduction? If lengthy, is it too wordy or does it contain background information that's of little use?
2. Does the introduction provide all of the amount and type of background information needed by the audience? Does it need definitions? Historical data? Other information?
3. How does the introduction engage the reader? How does it make a good first impression?
4. In what manner does the thesis take a stand on the problem?
 - How does it attempt to solve it?
 - How might it be more developed?
 - How is it contentious?
 - Where is it specific?
5. If essay points are in the claim, how could it be rewritten without mentioning them?
6. What is the antithesis of the thesis? Is it just as debatable?
7. Is the thesis placed most effectively? If not, where might it be better located?

3.3. The Confirmation: Supporting the Claim

In the most direct argumentative essays, supporting points follow the claim (also called the thesis, stand, contention, solution) just as they would in any other essay. How many supporting points are enough? A minimum of three is always safe; and remember, this does not mean three paragraphs, but three major points of support. The number of paragraphs is irrelevant. The first point may take three paragraphs; the next, two; the third, three; and the fourth, four. Also, avoid page-long paragraphs; the goal is to engage and to persuade the reader, not make it hard for him or her to absorb the material by burying it in large, unwieldy blocks of text.

In supporting an argumentative essay, writers focus on the effective use of some very important tools:

- The Three Appeals
- Evidence

The Three Appeals (Emotional, Ethical, and Logical) have been explained in detail in the previous section of this study guide. Given the audience, one, two, or a combination of all three appeals might be used in support of a thesis or claim. This means that if an

emotional appeal were appropriate, words and examples with strong positive and negative connotations would be employed; that if an ethical appeal were appropriate, knowledge of subject matter, outside authorities, common ground, and a reasonable tone would be used; and if a logical appeal were appropriate, inductive and/or deductive reasoning and the accompanying patterns of logical development would be emphasized. As noted previously, in all but the case of the strongly supportive audience, different combinations of all the appeals are most effective.

Further, in a logical appeal, the methods of reasoning used in the three or more major supporting points could shift from point to point.

Examples of different logical approaches in each of an essay's major points:

- Point one might be a deductive argument focusing on a definition or a law or a truism, followed by specific instances related to the subject, followed by sound conclusions;
- Point two might exemplify a number of points of evidence and make an inductive leap, coming to another conclusion in support of the thesis;
- Point three might be a cause and effect paragraph developing another deductive argument;
- Point four might cite more evidence based on personal experiences illustrating inductively.

This dynamic approach to the use of logic engages a reader's interest, not only entertaining him, but also convincing him.

3.3.1. Evidence

Evidence is the key to the success of most arguments. Given its importance, students should take a hard look at what constitutes evidence and learn how to use it effectively.

What Is Evidence?

We are most familiar with evidence in the context of court cases. For example, in the famous O. J. Simpson trial, the glove, bloody sock, and DNA tests were all evidence the prosecution attempted to use to convince the minds of the jury to make an inductive leap: O. J. Simpson was guilty.

When writers develop points, they too must work hard to convince the reader that they have strong evidence to support their claims. In fact, the bulk of work associated with developing a contention requires gathering, evaluating, interpreting, presenting, and defending evidence. Standard evidence may include:

- Observation and Experiments
- Statistics and Samples
- Known Facts and Shared Beliefs
- Common Knowledge
- Examples
- Personal Experience
- Testimony of Experts

Observation and Experiments create results that are very objective forms of evidence. Relying on the rigors of uniformity and science to create situations and tests, observations and experiments produce information that could be duplicated by others. The student who observes the regimen and care given to infants in a daycare on a daily basis can accurately pass on information such as how often diapers are changed, how often and for how long children are parked in front of a television, and how often and what they are fed.

Similarly, we can learn a lot about behavior through experiments. Just as Einstein studied and experimented with the behavior of energy, the police officer might study the behavior and experiment with different approaches to a street gang to find ways to reach or understand its members. The results of experiments with people don't have the accuracy of experiments in biology or physics, but nevertheless shed light on issues of concern. Even failures are often revealing, because telling others what doesn't work—for instance, dressing up like a gang member—may be valuable information and evidence that may support a claim.

Statistics and Samples prove points by using the power of numbers. By their specific nature, numbers are readily comparable and understood. By definition, statistics are numerical data gathered, assembled, and presented to give relative information about a subject. For example, let's say 75% of the students that take American History II at HCCS pass it. This is a statistic. Let's also say that 10% get As, 30% Bs, 30% Cs, and 5% Ds. Depending on the argument, citing the fact that 10% of the students earned As could be important.

We often hear that we should be wary of statistics. Why? Statistics can be misleading. Even in our simple example, do we really know who earned the As, Bs, Cs, and Ds? No. Do these grades include all the campuses at HCCS? All the colleges? Are summer school students included? Do they include students who withdraw? The numbers, their interpretation, and their value would change depending on the sample.

Also, we often hear of professional surveys and statistics. Again, they are as good as the group polled. Professional sampling is a science where groups are selected with characteristics or qualities representative of a very large population. For example, the Gallup Poll selects a sample of citizens by which it measures public opinion on everything from abortion and drugs to who will win an election, even taking up to the minute opinion surveys on national election results before polls close on the west coast. Are such surveys always right? Often, but not always.

Be careful with statistical evidence, and if possible, state the sample and its margin of error when reporting such findings.

Known Facts and Shared Beliefs are what the people within a given culture hold to be true. For example, we all believe the earth orbits the sun, the Mayflower landed at Plymouth Rock in 1620, and George Lucas is the creator of *Star Wars*. Why are such obvious truths important as evidence? When used creatively, they not only establish a shared understanding between writer and reader, but also can strengthen a point. Note the following sentence:

Although we now take it for granted that the earth orbits the sun, Galileo, who was the first to prove Copernicus's theory, was condemned by the Inquisition for heresy and burned at the stake.

By using a known fact, the writer creates a contrast between past and present beliefs in order to demonstrate the depth of society's intolerance and resistance to change.

Common Knowledge is when a fact or a belief, which may not be known by all, is common enough that it would be found in three or more books on a subject. Again, this is evidence. An example of this might be the effects of clear-cutting on an old growth forest as described by Donella Meadows in "Not Seeing the Forest for the Dollar Bills":

The trees and owls disappear and so does everything else. Burned slash releases to the sky nutrients that have been sequestered and recycled by living things for 500 years. What's left of the soil bleeds downhill as from an open wound. Waters cloud and silt, flood and dry up. The temperature goes up, the humidity goes down. It will take hundreds of years to regather the nutrients, rebuild the soil, and restore the complex system of the intact forest.

While most of us do not know exactly what happens after clear-cutting, any book on the subject will describe the process, using the above facts (although, perhaps, with less emotional language and imagery).

Examples are one of the most common forms of evidence. The writer takes a typical instance of what he or she is talking about and uses it to help explain, clarify, and/or prove a point. For instance, the earlier reference to the O. J. Simpson trial cited the glove, bloody sock, and the DNA tests as samples of the evidence the prosecution gathered to build its case. Likewise, in an essay about John Updike's "A&P," the textual references to customers as "sheep" and "scared pigs in a chute" are samples of evidence, or examples, of the narrator's disdain for conformity.

When examples are specific (such as, the references to the glove, sock and tests) and detailed (blood and DNA), they are highly effective forms of evidence. At their best, they demonstrate to the reader why the writer is justified in making his or her claim.

Personal Experience can be a very effective form of evidence, also. Although it is anecdotal and totally subjective (meaning it is only one person's experience and may have all of his or her beliefs coloring the interpretation of it), personal experience can quickly focus and support an argument when bolstered by facts, statistics, and other forms of evidence. We listen to the former convict who talks about prison conditions, the woman who expresses her feelings about her abortion, and the man who was pronounced dead by doctors, telling everyone about a comforting white light he walked into in his death sleep. Again, such evidence is biased. Writers base the telling of personal experiences on their senses and their ability to accurately interpret what they witnessed; and as we know from trials, three people can witness the same car accident and have three different interpretations of what happened.

Then why is such evidence effective? It's direct and personal; we relate to another human being's experiences. Also, note that a writer may write about others' personal experiences. Although not as direct, it's still personal.

Testimony of Experts is often considered evidence, also. When someone has a reputation or a position that invites trust, we consider his or her opinions very highly. For example, at a trial, a noted psychologist may declare a defendant sane and give evidence in

support of this claim. However, the defense may later call another noted psychologist to the witness stand, one who declares the same defendant insane, giving different evidence to support this new claim.

It is important to note that, in each case, the psychologists gave their opinions and supported it with evidence. Are such opinions facts? No. They are opinions based on different assumptions, evidence, and/or logic that the two noted professionals have given to support their position.

Writers must realize that such experts and their testimony are effective in supporting a position because they develop the credibility of the writer, but are they evidence? No. Some of the information used in the arguments is evidence, of course, but the opinion it supports and/or the person is not.

The Importance of Evidence cannot be overemphasized. In an ethical appeal, the writer uses knowledge of subject matter to assure credibility. One of the most effective ways to show knowledge is to cite evidence. In a logical appeal, the writer uses information in the form of evidence to develop and make an inductive leap, and consequently, the conclusion of the inductive argument is as good as the evidence which supports it.

Finally, without proof, a claim has no merit. Without support, assertions have no substance. Without tangible evidence, before all but a highly supportive audience, an argument has no foundation.

3.3.2. The Criteria for Good Evidence

As in anything else, some efforts are effective and others are not. The evidence used in an essay must have certain qualities to be accepted by the thoughtful audience.

All evidence should be

- * Accurate
- * Relevant
- * Representative
- * Specific and Detailed
- * Sufficient
- * Current

Accurate: Verify evidence to be sure it is correct. Even a relatively unbiased source, such as *The New York Times* or *Wall Street Journal*, can err. Cross check important or surprising evidence with other sources to see if it is common knowledge or the result of a new survey, experiment, or test. If new, check to see if any secondary sources claim the results are exaggerated or understated.

Relevant: Evidence must speak directly to the issue at hand. When discussing the effects of multiculturalism on college syllabi, the essay must not discuss the differences in child rearing practiced by different ethnic groups, but the syllabi. When discussing the irony in Kate Chopin's "The Story of an Hour," the essay must not talk about the author's life but about examples of ironies in the text.

Representative: Evidence must fairly represent the situation and topic. For example, when discussing the use of seat belts, the truck driver whose life was saved by not wearing a seat belt when he grabbed a tree branch and hauled himself out of the window of his tumbling truck as it crashed down a ravine and exploded is not representative of most accidents and experiences

using seat belts. Such an example is a “wild hare.” Please, evidence must be indicative of the norm, not the abnormal.

Specific and Detailed: The more generalized or vague the evidence, the less convincing and effective it is. Review again the O.J. Simpson evidence described in the Examples subsection above. If specific facts, studies, numbers, quotations, or other information exist, use them. Always name persons, places, things and events whenever possible. When details are left out, we wonder if they exist.

Sufficient: Although no rule exists for the right amount of evidence, enough should be present to convince the audience. Three to four samples are often considered a safe minimum to support subordinate points with most audiences, but when in doubt or attempting to prove something that might not be readily accepted, give more, not less, than may be necessary. Remember also that examples alone are rarely sufficient. Other forms of evidence are also necessary.

Current: Evidence that includes the latest thoughts on a topic is said to have currency or to be current. For example, an inductive proof that does not include the latest observations or tests or discoveries usually should not be accepted. An audience deserves the latest information. When is currency important? This depends upon the subject. In science, the last six months may not be recent enough if a discovery’s been made. In most subjects, however, two to three years may be current enough. Also note that sometimes, perhaps in a critique of “The Raven” by Edgar Allan Poe, a work that’s been studied for decades, currency may not be all that important (unless someone just wrote a startling new interpretation!).

Must a Confirmation Include Evidence from Every Category?

No. From three categories? From more than one? The answer depends upon the issue and the available evidence. More categories of evidence create a more balanced contention, but sometimes, if one category is extremely well developed, it’s sufficient.

3.3.3. Checklist: Confirmation

1. What are the three or more major points that support the claim? How are they unified to it?
2. Where are recognizable appeals present? To emotion? To logic? To credibility?
3. How could the different approaches to logic be classified in each point?
4. What kind of evidence is used?

* Examples?	* Statistics and Samples?
* Common Knowledge?	* Known Facts and Shared Beliefs?
* Personal Experience?	* Observations and Experiments?
5. If not many varieties of evidence are used, what additional category or categories might be effective?
6. Are the points of contention specific and concrete? If not, what names of persons, places, things, and events would make them more detailed? What references to the five senses would make them more concrete?
7. Why is the evidence

* Relevant?	* Specific and detailed?
* Representative?	* Sufficient?
* Accurate?	* Current?
8. What else might be said to prove the claim? What, if any, essential information has been left out?

3.4. Refutation

Unlike the contention, which deals with the writer's claim and the reasons and evidence used to support it, the refutation focuses on the opposition's beliefs, analyzing the warrants, reasons, and evidence used to support them.

The refutation usually consists of two parts:

- * Concession or Accommodation
- * Rebuttal

3.4.1. Concession

While some might think of an argument as comprised of two or more opposing ideas lined up across some invisible line like armies about to destroy each other, the wise writer usually seeks to avert a headlong confrontation. Why? It's bloody and ineffective. As mentioned in the introduction to this study guide, one can disagree with another over an issue and gain, not lose, respect, if one knows how to be graceful in acknowledging the opposition. How? Often, the opposition's ideas consist of many of the same assumptions, reasoning, and evidence as our own. Thus, although the ultimate conclusions of the opposition are not acceptable, some of its subordinate points or conclusions are. In fact, more often than not, opposing sides have areas of common ground, where both sides agree.

Although common ground has already been discussed in the Ethical Appeal section, it's important to restate that the value and importance of conceding one or more points, of giving the opposition its due, is both effective and fair, causing an audience to think one's position more balanced and thoughtful. Also, realize the difference between accepting one argument or another often rests on a straw: a different interpretation of a fact or a statistic,

an assumption that one side may not be willing to concede, a major premise that's unacceptable. When isolated, the difference is significant, but one major difference does not imply that all the two sides still have in common does not exist.

This act of accommodation, of conceding a point or points, also draws the opposing sides together, allowing an audience to more readily see the analytic distinctions between arguments (the rebuttal) for having seen what they have in common (the concession).

The point, then, of the concession, is to acknowledge that

- * Yes, not everyone is in agreement with the claim,
and
- * some of the opposition's points can be accommodated.

For example, common ground between gun control advocates and the National Rifle Association (NRA) might seem impossible, but look at what happens if the gun control advocates claim only handguns should be outlawed, not rifles. By conceding rifles, by accommodating this type of weapon, the areas of dispute between the two sides have narrowed. Areas of common ground have expanded. As a result, gun control advocates are perceived as being more reasonable, and their rebuttals of opposition points will now be more focused. The flaws they reveal will only discredit the assumptions, reasoning, and evidence behind the private ownership of handguns.

3.4.2. Rebuttal

After the concession, the second part of the refutation requires a new approach to writing. Instead of supporting the writer's thesis, the rebuttal undermines the supporting points of the theses of others who are in disagreement with the writer. While a confirmation develops and supports, a rebuttal analyzes and shows flaws. Why? A rebuttal's purpose is to show that the points, which cannot be accommodated in another's position, are wrong.

Occasionally, some writers react negatively to the idea of rebuttal and making others' positions wrong, saying, "I don't want to hurt anyone." It's important to understand that this is not the case. This comment is based on a couple of false warrants (assumptions): that a person equals a position and that to undermine someone's position is to undermine them, to hurt them. Yes, the opposition will be disappointed if its argument is shown to be lacking, but a person is not an issue. We must separate the issue from the person and show that the position taken on the issue is based on false evidence, false reasoning, or false assumptions. The person in opposition is not attacked as wrong, only his or her position.

For example, let's say a club owner wants to open a new nightclub in an exotic location and his two most valued assistants, Yin and Yang, support different spots: Las Vegas and Hong Kong. Yin argues for Las Vegas in her confirmation, showing its advantages to the company, and in her rebuttal, she shows why Hong Kong is wrong for the company. She does not attack Yang, only his position, perhaps pointing to faulty evidence (an unstable currency and political climate), faulty warrants (managing a property so far away might not be as simple as one thinks; and due to cultural differences, their club concept which works in the States may not be popular in Hong Kong). Notice, Yin does not say anything about Las Vegas in the rebuttal of Yang's argument. To do so would be redundant because she's already stated the benefits of Las Vegas in her contention. The rebuttal only refutes, undermining the reasons behind the thesis of another. Based on Yin's well-developed contention and refutation, the boss decides on Las Vegas.

In the business, economic, academic, and social worlds we live in, decisions often have to be made between two attractive alternatives, and we are forced to make decisions based on what is most right. In such cases, we must learn to take a stand, defend a position, and analyze opposing ideas, showing they are not the best answer due to their flaws. To know how to fairly and effectively refute opposing arguments is a powerful tool that can make the difference between gaining what's best for our community and us or having to live with a poor alternative.

A good rebuttal consists of three parts:

- (1) Stating the opposition point
- (2) Negating the opposition point
- (3) Analyzing and Revealing its flaws

Stating the opposition point opens a rebuttal by clearly and fairly expressing the opposition's position. Note the second paragraph of this section on Rebuttal. The first sentence of the second paragraph is an opposition point.

Let's examine it, analyzing the three questions any opposition point should answer: who, what, and why.

Example: Occasionally, some writers react negatively to the idea of rebuttal and making others' positions wrong, saying, "I don't want to hurt anyone."

Who? Some writers

What? react negatively to the idea of rebuttal and making others' positions wrong,

Why? saying, "I don't want to hurt anyone."

To be clear and fair gives credibility because a writer shows he has nothing to hide and is willing to meet the opposition's best point head on. In this form, it is also effective to analyze because the writer has indicated who the opposition is, what it believes, and why. The "why" is extremely important because it becomes the focus of the writer's rebuttal or analysis. If the reasons, assumptions, or facts the opposition bases its belief upon is not stated, what is there to analyze? In this case, "I don't want to hurt anyone," is the reason some students feel uncomfortable about rebuttal. If the writer can show through analysis that no one gets hurt, the opposition's stance is undermined and it no longer has a strong argument.

Do not make the opposition point too long or too involved. Get to the reason behind the opposition's position directly, and accurately state its best supporting argument clearly and concisely. At most, keep it to a sentence or two. Any more and the opposing side's point might start to sound better than the writer's. The challenge here is to state the case without selling it. The writer shows his or her knowledge of the subject matter, including what those who disagree contend, without losing focus on what's important: to set up an analysis to show how opposing points are flawed.

Negating the opposition point is essential, so the audience knows immediately that the writer does not agree with the point expressed. In fact, the negation is the topic sentence of the paragraph and subsequent rebuttal points. In the second paragraph of this section, a

strong negation arises after a clarification of the opposition point. Take another look at the paragraph:

Occasionally, some writers react negatively to the idea of rebuttal and making others' positions wrong, saying, "I don't want to hurt anyone." It's important to understand that this is not the case. This comment is based on a couple of false warrants (assumptions): that a person equals a position and that to undermine someone's position is to undermine them, to hurt them. Yes, the opposition will be disappointed if its argument is shown to be lacking, but a person is not an issue. We must separate the issue from the person and show that the position taken on the issue is based on false evidence, false reasoning, or false assumptions. The person in opposition is not attacked as wrong, only his or her position.

In the topic sentence, "It is important to understand that this is not the case," "this" refers to the opposition point; "is not the case" is the position. It is imperative to immediately negate the opposition in a complete, separate sentence because it is what the rest of the paragraph proves. The sentences following it support the claim and are organized and developed as any supporting points and evidence should be in a paragraph.

A couple of errors plague novice writers. Occasionally writers immediately begin a rebuttal after the opposition point, without the negation, without the topic sentence, without the information letting the reader know that the points to follow will show the opposition to be wrong. When this happens, the reader gets lost, coherence withers, unity suffers. To maintain unity and coherence, always clearly negate the opposition point, and do so just after it has been stated. Secondly, do not tack the negation onto the end of the sentence which is the opposition's argument. Give the other side its moment, a complete sentence; then, as in our example, state in a separate sentence that the argument just expressed is unacceptable.

Do negations always have to be so black and white? No, they can be subtle, but there must be no question about the stand. Notice that the sentence right after an opposition point also offers an excellent place to express common ground. For example, in our example, the writer might have included an accommodation to the opposition and a subtler negation:

Opposition:	Occasionally, some writers react negatively to the idea of rebuttal and making others' positions wrong, saying, "I don't want to hurt anyone."
Common Ground:	Of course, no one wants to hurt anyone.
Negation:	In fact, rebuttals do not hurt individuals, only fallacious beliefs.

Revealing the Opposition Point's Flaws demands an Analysis.

This analysis develops the negation, the writer's topic sentence, proving why the support for the point of the opposition is unacceptable or inadequate. The more writers think of a rebuttal as a mini-analysis, the more effective their rebuttals will be. In the working example, the reason "I don't want to hurt anyone" is analyzed and shown wanting since it is based on false warrants.

The first warrant examined is that a person and his or her position on an issue are one and the same. Of course, they are not. People are not issues. This is a false assumption. In this detailed way, warrants, reasoning, and evidence must be identified and examined, showing flaws just as an analysis of support does in the Analysis section of this Study Guide.

It is imperative to remember that something must be flawed. If it were not, the opposition's point would be the best one and the writer should logically accept it. A point is not wrong just because one disagrees with it or has another idea. In rebuttal, one must prove it flawed. To do so, it must be broken down into parts until one or more of the parts is shown to have unacceptable warrants, reasoning, or evidence.

A serious mistake in developing a rebuttal is to restate the confirmation or some point from it. Redundant and ineffective, this strategy (or lack of one) does not undermine the opposition. Erring writers also, in lieu of discrediting the other point of view, often develop a point in favor of their contention that they failed to mention earlier. This also misses the mark, again failing to show why the opposition is wrong. Realize that for a writer to merely shout back at an opposition point what he or she thinks is right does not undermine it. In fact, it will undermine the writer's credibility and might make the careful reader, impressed by an argument left whole and not discredited, want to know more about opposing ideas. As a result, instead of dismissing the opposition as less than perfect, the writer has drawn attention to its possibilities.

To make sure an analysis is cohesive, points of analysis must be named and repeated often as key words until a particular analysis is complete. For example, when analyzing warrants, as in our example, the word *warrants* is introduced and either it or a synonym, such as *underlying beliefs*, *values*, or *assumptions*, is repeated often to let readers know the topic of analysis and the context in which to hold information. When a section of reasoning follows, the words *reason* and/or *logic* or the *thinking process* must also be introduced to inform the reader of a change in analysis. Also any subcategories such as deductive or inductive reasoning, logical fallacies, or patterns of logic must be stated directly and repeated to ground the examination. In this same way, the word *evidence* must also be introduced when beginning its analysis and repeated, using subcategories of evidence, such as *examples*, *common knowledge*, and *personal experience*, also. In this category, evaluative terms such as *accuracy*, *sufficiency*, *currency*, and *relevance* must also be used to show the opposition's failings.

To keep an analysis clear and to prevent it from sounding wooden or too structured, use synonyms and connotative language, creatively working to delight and surprise a reader as in any other form of writing.

How Does One Develop a Rebuttal?

Brainstorm. Brainstorm possible flaws in the warrants, then in the reasoning, then in the evidence that support the opposition's thesis. List all of the ideas that come to mind, then examine them. Again, there must be something that isn't right, something flawed. Ask, "What cannot be agreed with?" "Where is the weakness?"

In the club example, suppose Yin determines Yang's contention to locate the new night club in Hong Kong is based on the fact that he claims three out of four night clubs have thrived there and business is booming. To undermine the evidence behind Yang's argument, Yin must show that their club might well be part of the 25% that fail due to questionable

assumptions: the difficulties in managing a property so far away and the cultural differences that may make their club concept unpopular in Hong Kong. She must also show that although business is currently booming (common ground), that's not an assurance that it will continue to do so in the future given other evidence: an unstable currency and the unknown political climate (Chinese Communist management of the once stable and capitalist British city).

So, brainstorm the warrants, reasoning, and evidence behind an opposition point, then, after writing the opposition point and the negation, introduce one of the analysis topics, say warrants. Identify them, then examine them, showing which are acceptable and which are not. Repeat key words. Then, introduce another topic of analysis, say reasoning, in the same paragraph or start a new one, identifying, examining, and evaluating. Do the same for evidence. Depending on the analysis, place these in a simple to complex order, starting with the simplest point to prove or understand, moving to the most complex one.

When Is a Refutation Necessary?

Consider the audience. If supportive, is there need? Rarely. Perhaps, if supporters are restless, an attack on unclear thoughts might be appropriate, but such a tactic would be the exception, not the rule.

Usually, we use concession and rebuttal for wavering and hostile audiences: the former to move them to our camp, and the latter to make them at least question the soundness of their beliefs. In general, refutation of the opposing argument should be presented when the audience:

- * Seems generally opposed to the speaker's stand;
- * Is sophisticated, i.e., knowledgeable or well educated;
- * Is likely to be exposed to opposing arguments;
- * Is confused over what the various arguments mean.

3.4.3. Checklist: Refutation

1. In the concession, how are opposition points accommodated? Give examples? Could more points be accommodated? Which ones?
2. How has concession broadened the common ground between your claim and the oppositions? How has it narrowed the area of disagreement?
3. In the rebuttal, how many points are rebutted? Two? Three? What are they?
4. Are the opposition points chosen in the essay, its best ones? Have any particularly difficult opposition points been avoided? If so, which?
5. Is each opposition point clearly and fairly stated? Do we know
 - * who believes it?
 - * what the point is?
 - * why it's believed?
6. In the rebuttal, is the negation of the opposition point a clear topic sentence? Does it follow the opposition point? Is it direct? Or is it subtle? How so?
7. Does the rebuttal focus on an analysis of flawed assumptions, reasoning, and/or evidence?
8. Are key words of analysis repeated throughout each section of analysis?
9. How is the "why" stated in the opposition point clearly shown to be false or, at least, unacceptable?
10. Does the rebuttal accidentally restate one of the points of contention? Does it develop a new point of contention not mentioned earlier? If so, how can this point of contention be eliminated from the rebuttal and placed in the contention?
11. How is the evidence used in rebuttal? Are these terms used and can they be applied to the analysis?
 - * Accurate * Specific and detailed
 - * Representative * Sufficient
 - * Relevant * Current
12. How does the conclusion give a sense of completion? Of closure?
13. How are all of the threads of evidence and logic wrapped up?
14. Is the claim restated in a new and emphatic manner?

4.ADDENDUM:STUDENTESSAYS

4.1. Student Exploratory Essay

These are essays that work to define a specific issue, give background information, and show three opposing positions on it. These papers can be informative, exploring the issue as a set up for a research paper or they can be persuasive, using the information comparatively as a rhetorical strategy.

4.1.1. Exploratory Essay with Class Text Sources Only: Informative

Homosexual Marriage

Marriage has been one of the single-most important foundations of civilization for thousands of years. This institution whereby a social and legal dependence is created has remained virtually unchanged, with the exception of 1967 when the United States Supreme Court removed the last of the anti-miscegenation laws from America. Recently there has been a growing movement within the homosexual community attempting to gain the right to legally marry. With the recent decision by the Supreme Court of Vermont that dream is now becoming a reality. With this new and controversial union, what are the opposing views and will this new marriage ever be truly accepted?

Allowing homosexuals the right to marry has been a cause of great consternation throughout the traditional marriage community. These concerns encompass religious, moral, and legal ramifications. To understand the events that led to the legalization of homosexual marriage in Vermont, it is important to have an understanding of the landmark cases that led to this ruling. The first case heard by the United States Supreme Court was *Romer v. Evans*. In this case, the court overturned Colorado's Amendment Two which stated that homosexuals were afforded no special protection in cases of discrimination. With this precedent, a case was sent before the Supreme Court of Hawaii that ruled that the exclusion of homosexuals from marrying was a form of discrimination.

These two cases allowed a lesbian couple to challenge the state of Vermont, which led to it being the first state to fully recognize homosexual marriage. This decision has placed Americans in one of three camps: for homosexual marriage, against homosexual marriage, or for a homosexual marriage of limited legality.

Homosexuals feel that state and federally sanctioned marriage would convey the commitment, significance, and seriousness of their relationships. No longer would they need use such covert signs of their commitment such as wearing a ring on the left pinky, "lesbian's traditional ring-bearing finger" (Hochman 50). Homosexuals feel that marriage affords important legal status, which means there is an agreement of binding rights and obligations. These rights through marriage are both legal and enforceable. The homosexual perspective is that local or state government and laws that allow unions of specific groups cannot mandate love and are unconstitutional. They argue that murderers, rapists, and pedophiles are allowed marriage, yet homosexual union is thought to be perverse. The homosexuals counter the argument of marriage being sanctioned naturally by the act of procreation by illustrating that "birth [isn't] the only way to acquire offspring" (Graff 27). Homosexuals realize their quest is an uphill battle that they are committed to make.

Those opposed to homosexual marriage consider it a moral intrusion. They feel that legalization of homosexual would force homosexuality upon them. The feeling is that legal acknowledgement would harm the entire institution of marriage. They feel that the federal government supports their cause with the passage of the Protection of Marriage Act.

Another reason for opposition is the moral ramifications of this union. They feel that the next progression, if homosexuals were allowed marriage, would be the lifting of age restrictions. The goal is to take the definition of marriage literally by restricting it to one man and one woman. They believe that legalizing homosexual marriage would turn the state against those who have traditional values and they claim that if the states allow same sex marriages, the states would be telling them that their beliefs are no longer valid. According to them, homosexual marriage is not in accordance with natural law or the basic precepts of the moral code. They see that marriage is religious in nature and point to the fact that most religious denominations prohibit homosexuality. They also believe these marriages would diminish the institution by making the will of the few the law of the land. The traditionalists are encamped and prepared for a long battle.

Those in the middle ground recognize the validity in the arguments for and against homosexual marriage. This group is willing to recognize homosexual union but not give homosexuals the full extent of federal law. They are willing to allow the individual states to vote on this question and if the measure were passed, the state would be allowed to change its constitution. With a marriage legally recognized by the state government, these couples would qualify for over four hundred rights and incentives offered to married couples. Though the moderates realize that homosexual couples would be excluded from the one thousand federal rights and tax benefits, they see this as a starting point. They know that “most people would probably agree that some changes in values are urgently needed” (Coontz 67) before a major change in thinking is made. They prefer that the homosexual marriage question be taken in incremental steps by voter mandate. The moderates realize that this is an emotional and heated issue but hope there is some middle ground that would allow mutual benefit and understanding.

The battle lines for the homosexual marriage issue are drawn with no clear end in sight. As new lawsuits are filed in both California and Massachusetts, homosexual marriage has been brought to the forefront of American issues. Hopefully, a middle ground can be found so that both sides feel that their interpretation of marriage remains intact.

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Editor’s Note: The writer does a good job of presenting the issue and developing enough background information to show why gay marriage has suddenly emerged as an issue on the American stage. (1) Does the writer take a stand on the issue? Why or why not? (2) Note this is generally very detailed. What is lost by not giving the

reader a few examples of the 400-1000 benefits to be gained by gays through legal marriage? Work to specifically name persons, places, things, and events to make your writing more alive and creditable.

4.1.2. Exploratory Essay as Research Paper: Persuasive

Do You Really Want to Eat that Potato Chip?

For over 12,000 years agriculture has remained the same. Over millennia farmers have crossbred plants to produce favorable species. Farming methods have changed little over the course of time. Crop rotation and various other methods have remained unchanged throughout the progress of society. Just recently a handful of large corporations have come to the decision that improvements on our food supply is necessary to keep up with the changing environment. By genetically manipulating the food chain the “life science” corporations hope to produce genetically enhanced crops that are resistant to herbicides, produce natural pesticides, or are tolerant to low levels of precipitation. This idea of perfecting the food chain will solve many global problems, in the eyes of the “life science” corporations.

Changing the food chain that has supported the planet through the evolutionary process has caused great concern among scientists and various organizations. These concerns encompass the engineering methods used to create genetically engineered (GE) crops to health and environmental concerns. To fully understand these concerns, we must investigate the process of genetically engineering these “new” plants. Essentially, in a laboratory setting, the genetic scientist inserts the various admirable traits into a constructed virus (Cauliflower Mosaic Virus), bacteria (*Agrobacterium tumefaciens*), or other parasites. The genetic material inserted contains the favorable genes, gene switches, and a gene promoter in order for the trait to function properly. The “new virus” infects the plant and transfers the genetic material into the plant’s genome. Through infection by the virus the genetic traits of the plant are altered (Ho). Another way of transferring genetic material in plants includes micro particle bombardment. “Micro projectile bombardment (also known as micro particle bombardment and biolytic transformation) is a technique used to directly deliver DNA to the host genome. In short, plasmid or linearized DNA with the gene(s) of interest is fixed to tungsten or gold particles (micro carriers) which are delivered to host cells at high speed so as to penetrate the nucleus of the plant cells. In the nucleus, the DNA may separate from the micro carrier and become integrated into the host genome” (AGBIOS). Through these processes a plant can be sprayed with as much herbicides as the farmer desires, so the weeds will be killed and the plant is free to survive.

A handful of corporations are involved in genetically engineering foods, but the main corporation that funds these new creations is Monsanto. Monsanto is mainly a chemical and pesticide company that has decided to venture into the area of “life sciences.” One of the issues that Monsanto is trying to solve is the low resistance to herbicides that is causing problems for farmers because there are so many herbicides in the soil making it difficult to grow crops. With the Monsanto line of “Roundup Ready” plants, farmers do not have to worry about the crops dying from trying to get rid of the weeds. Another issue that these corporations are tackling is “prescription foods.” These new plants would contain a vaccine, so when people go to the doctor, they need not have a shot, they could opt for a piece of fruit or a piece of chocolate.

This new technology would be extremely helpful in the area of children being administered shots. Creating a strain of food that was enhanced with extra vitamins (Vitamin A) would protect the masses of the world from malnutrition (Shah). These new ideas for food enhancement would greatly benefit the world and could have promising positive effects for the multitudes. Even so, there are those that believe that this could be the beginning of the end.

Many scientists have come together to protest about the effects of GE foods. Unlike the “life science” corporations, they see these “new” foods as a threat to the carefully balanced ecosystem. Some of these concerns are centered on the logic in the situation. Others have proof that the concerns of GE foods are true. Dr. Mae-Wan Ho states, “Let me begin with recent report from Germany that GM (genetically modified) genes in GM pollen have transferred to the bacteria and yeasts in the gut of baby bees. This kind of horizontal gene transfer involves the direct uptake of foreign genetic material. After GM sugar beet was harvested, the GM material persisted in the soil for at least two years and was taken up by soil bacteria.” Dr. Ho goes on to explain that this transfer of genetic material can even occur in humans (Ho). Professor Dennis Parke comments on the dangers in these foods, saying, “In 1983, hundreds of people in Spain died after consuming adulterated rapeseed oil.” Dr. Parke then explains a key problem in correctly testing these “new” products. “This adulterated rapeseed oil was not toxic to rats,” Dr. Parke states (Lacey et al). Other doctors, who work for the Food & Drug Administration, are outraged with the release of these GM foods. They have filed a lawsuit against the FDA for violating the U.S. Food, Drug and Cosmetic Safety Act stating that the FDA “allow[ed] genetically engineered foods to be marketed without testing on the premise that they were generally recognized as safe by qualified FDA scientists.” These doctors also say that, “The FDA repeatedly ignored resistance from its own scientists who warned that gene splicing differs from conventional practices and entails a unique set of risks” (Ecott). Dr. Henry Miller, who was with the FDA from 1979 to 1994, went so far as to say, “U.S. government agencies have done exactly what big agribusiness has asked them to do and told them to do.” Monsanto’s Director of Corporate Communications, Phil Angell stated, in defense of these claims that, “Monsanto should not have to vouchsafe the safety of biotech foods” (GE Food Alert).

Many organizations agree with these concerned doctors. Many churches representing a multitude of faiths argue that “life science” corporations are “tampering with God’s creation, the integrity of humanities relationship with God” (Ecott). The concerns of the organizations deal with the health risks that may be involved in consuming GM foods. Their concerns range from allergic reactions to GM foods, increased global herbicide use, and the loss of nutrition from GM foods. The Organic Consumer Organization reported that in 1999 Dr. Arpad Pusztai published findings that GM potatoes are a health risk. Dr. Pusztai found that rats that consumed GE potatoes, compared to rats fed ordinary potatoes, had “significantly thicker intestinal walls, thinning of tissues in the large intestine, and an increase in white blood cells in the intestinal linings.” Shortly after the scientific publication of Dr. Pusztai’s findings, funding for his research was eliminated, and Pusztai lost his job.

As a mother, I am concerned with the issue of genetically modified foods. In response to an increase in information against the Biotech industry, I have ceased to feed my family these altered foods. Now that my family is aware that large food corporations like Kraft, Taco Bell, Kentucky Fried Chicken, Pizza Hut, and PepsiCo use GM foods, it is easier to really see what big business is doing to the consumers that trust them. So the next time you eat a big bowl

of Macaroni & Cheese, know that you are not consuming just pasta and cheese, but a whole conglomeration of genetically manipulated foods (Shah).

“If the American public wants progress, they will have to be guinea pigs.”

-U.S. policy makers at a 1988 meeting on the safety of genetically engineered foods. (GE Food Alert)

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Editor’s Notes: Does this essay only explore? Before stating Monsanto’s position, she telegraphs hers twice. Where? Note the order of the points; why begin with those opposed to her final position? Also, note the statements chosen to represent genetically engineered food positions. What’s the effect of words such as “significantly thicker intestinal walls,” and “guinea pigs”? The effect of testimony of researchers and the writer’s knowledge of the subject matter? The effect of the unknown side effects of these foods? As you’ll see after reading the next section, this essay uses all three appeals to convince a neutral audience and saves its claim until the end. Exploratory essays need not be persuasive, but as this shows, they can be.

4.2. Essays Using the Three Appeals

These papers use the three appeals—ethical, logical, and emotional—as rhetorical strategies to convince a wavering audience. Note the emotional appeals in each. Students often shy away from using connotative language, especially in a pattern, but look at the effect. The language itself convinces.

4.2.1. Essay requiring all three appeals and three sources

America: Liberty and Justice for All?

In 1942, after the bombing of Pearl Harbor, Franklin D. Roosevelt ordered the removal of all Japanese Americans from the Pacific West Coast. The result was an enormous dislodgment of thousands of American citizens from their homes and businesses. Although deemed a necessary action of wartime, the relocation and confinement of the Japanese-American people during World War II was unjust.

The relocation program was unjust because it was unconstitutional. The Fifth Amendment to the Constitution states, “No person shall be . . . deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law...” These people were never given due process of law; therefore, they were not protected under the Constitution. Section one of the Fourteenth Amendment states, “All persons born or naturalized in the United States... are citizens of the United States . . . and [shall not be denied] the equal protection of the laws.” According to Irving L. Gordon, author of *American History*, 70,000 of the 110,000 prisoners were, in fact, American citizens (362).

The implementation of the relocation program was a terrible act of injustice because it was not based upon any specific instance of disloyalty by Japanese Americans. James Henretta, the lead author of *America's History*, stated, “No Japanese American was ever charged with espionage” (Henretta, et al. 850). The American government had ulterior motives that were not only driven by panic and fear, but also by convenience. These ulterior motives are most evident due to the fact that Japanese Americans in Hawaii were allowed to stay in their homes. They made up one-third of Hawaii's population at that time (Henretta, et al. 851). If the United States government were only concerned about national security, it would have seen Hawaiian citizens as more of a threat than Californians. It is clear that the American government did not remove them because the Hawaiian economy could not survive without them. Is it possible that Japanese were re-located due to the long history of antagonism between California and the Japanese over immigration excesses and the fear of losing jobs? Yes, it is. This long struggle attributed to the pervasive fear that was felt on the West Coast: fear of Kamikaze attacks and fear of espionage. The American people panicked; the American government reacted.

Possibly the most disturbing confirmation that the relocation of the Japanese Americans was unjust is the fact that it was racially motivated. William H. Rehnquist, Chief Justice of the United States Supreme Court stated:

The discrimination against the [Japanese] lay in the fact that any other citizen could remain in his home unless actually tried and convicted of espionage or sabotage while the [Japanese] were removed from their homes without any individualized findings at all. (294)

The Japanese were the only people to be detained and confined in what has been compared to Nazi concentration camps. We were also at war with Germany and Italy, but those citizens were not treated with the same disrespect. Perhaps it was because the Japanese were easily identifiable, or in part, because they were the only enemy power to attack us on American soil. Maybe it was just because, as General John DeWitt of the United States Army once stated, “A Jap’s a Jap. It makes no difference whether he is an American citizen or not” (qtd. in Henretta, et al. 850).

One can only speculate as to the reasons why the American government racially discriminated against the Japanese; however, one thing is certain, their actions were wrong. This was not merely a necessary evil of wartime. It was insensitivity based on racism. This type of behavior is never justified. Harlan F. Stone, former Chief Justice of the United States Supreme Court, once said, “[D]istinctions between citizens solely because of their ancestry are by their very nature odious to a free people whose institutions are founded upon the doctrine of equality” (qtd. in Rehnquist 291).

In 1988, the United States government issued a public apology and gave \$20,000 to each of the “surviving internees” (Henretta, et al. 853). Although it has acknowledged its wrongdoing in this shameful ordeal, as once stated by a lawyer for the Justice Department, this was definitely “the worst blow to civil liberty in our history” (qtd. in Rehnquist 292). Loyal American citizens must uphold the doctrines on which this country was founded and never allow this to happen again. As Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. once stated, “Anyone who lives inside the United States can never be considered an outsider anywhere within its bounds.”

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Editor’s note: This is an excellent example of the use of logical and ethical appeals and it has a strong emotional voice. (1) What could make the emotional appeal more focused? (2) An informal survey, conducted by the writer at a later time, found people still thought the Japanese internment justified. If this information were included in the essay, what would have it added? (3) In the final analysis, is this a contention that takes a stand on an issue or is it informative? Why?

4.2.2. Essay requiring all three appeals and four sources, one literary

The Stranger

Why would anyone invite a stranger into their homes who was an incessant talker and storyteller often offering beer and other addictive stimulants to our children? Why would anyone let this stranger freely talk to our children about sex, sometimes even making suggestive behaviors? Ironically this very stranger spends at least two hours per day with every one of us and significantly more time with our innocent children. As a society we have failed to recognize and do anything about the severe damage this stranger has incurred on the society. This stranger's name? Television. Admittedly, television has brought us local/international news, helped us learn about wildlife on the Serengeti, and tells us all about the Bowflex home gym; however, it has also colored our speech with profanity, stolen our children's virginity, and made them mindless criminals taking guns to school for show- and-tell. Its ill effects are well known and the solutions presented thus far have been pathetic attempts of political correctness. Our collective addiction to our beloved televisions has blinded us to the most obvious and, seemingly, the most dramatic solution: the complete banishment of television from our homes and our lives for the benefit of our children.

It is not easy to overlook or discount the adverse effects of television watching. Excessive television viewing promotes serious health risks such as weight-related disorders, poor nutrition, and a general lethargy (Shakir 21). This is supported by decades of research studies which have shown that in the nineties, the number of severely overweight children has at least doubled as compared to the sixties - mainly due to increasing inactivity (Shakir 23). Basically, watching television is a passive event—a highly active child will remain inactive while watching TV because that is what the medium requires. In order to receive stimulation (i.e. enjoy the program) from the television, the child must be entirely passive. It is also without doubt that children's communication skills are directly related to the number of hours of television viewed. Obviously, the more television they view, the poorer their general literacy level is. According to the A. C. Nielson Co. Ratings (1997), the average child watches television for 1680 minutes per week, while spending only 38.5 minutes talking to his or her parents. Given this alarming statistic, the U.S. Department of Education's National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES) showed that student achievement in both reading and writing has been declining in recent years.

A prominent American educationist, Professor Lowell Little, claims that television raises ignorant students. He states in an education seminar in Florida, "[Children's] level of communication is just at the sixth grade level" (qtd. in Shakir 18). This proves a direct correlation between the number of hours of TV viewed and student achievement in reading and writing. These problems are vastly multiplied by bringing cable or satellite TV into our homes.

Television directly contributes to promoting a view that violence is commonplace in everyday life. By the time the average child graduates from elementary school, he or she will have seen more than 8, 000 murders and more than 100,000 other assorted acts of violence on television (Huston et al. 78). In some reports, research shows a positive relation between exposure to TV violence and aggressive behavior over many different kinds of measures and ages; and exposure seems not only to increase violence but to decrease prosocial behavior as well (Huston et al. 83). Furthermore, in the field of psychology, the Social Learning Theory asserts that the child will mimic acts of aggression as seen through the media, which forms

such a large part of childhood experience. With funding from the National Cable Television Association, a group of researchers at the University of California at Santa Barbara reported in February, 1996, that 57 percent of TV programs contained violence. The researchers concluded that there are three direct effects of viewing TV violence: children become less sensitive to the pain and suffering of others, they are more fearful of the world around them, and they are more likely to behave in aggressive or harmful ways toward others. Dr. David Pearl of the National Institute of Mental Health argues that “television tells people to be violent” (Devore 107). Consequently, children assume that violence is more common in daily life. In fact, studies following groups of children over long periods of time indicate that perpetual heavy doses of violent television during childhood contribute to violent behavior into adulthood (Shakir 16). Just viewing violent television leads to more aggressive behavior than viewing nonviolent television.

Although a life without TV may initially seem scary or impossible, life after TV can open up the world. Local libraries offer a number of options from light to serious reading. This type of mental stimulation is undoubtedly far more beneficial to growing young minds. Television images can only give a two-dimensional view; however, good novels put the reader in the middle of the action with all the sights, smells, and emotions. Households that value literacy will encourage their children to read and consequently will benefit from superior communication skills. Of course, outdoor activities are virtually always an option. Biking and running are among the best health-promoting sports and neither requires much equipment or training. Team sports teach a far greater range of skill-sets than just the sport itself. Museums and International fairs contribute to a child’s necessary multicultural education. Participation in the Arts helps out with the psychological development of children. Also, let’s not discount the benefits of classic indoor family games. These options aren’t even considered in homes where schedules revolve around Monday night RAW, TRL, or Thursday night Must-See-TV.

TV addiction has deceptively subtle effects and brings out surprisingly strong emotions. Amy Tan’s award winning first novel portrays a mother’s tough plight to separate her child from a TV as, “she stood in front of the TV. ‘No! I won’t!’ I screamed. She snapped off the TV, yanked me by the arm and pulled me off the floor..., half pulling, half carrying” (Tan 1071). There are no known clinics treating TV addiction or withdrawal therapy because the idea of eliminating one’s TV is too radical for general society. Even those who spend very little time worshipping their screens will staunchly argue against removing it altogether. The reality is that televisions have indoctrinated us and, more importantly, our children with false perceptions of beauty and self-worth; they have misled us about family life and corrupted our value systems; they artificially have increased our anxieties and fears; and they have stolen our precious time away from each other. It is time for us to give our children their lives and their innocence back. To do so, we must live in a world without television.

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Editor's note: This is an effective essay. Why? Look at the details: the consistent use of the names of people, places, things, and events. The use of all three appeals is also exemplary. (1) Notice that pro-television references are developed with negatively connotative words and the anti-television ones with positive ones. Can you find examples of both? (2) What does the introduction add to this piece? How might the conclusion have used the "stranger" to make a more emphatic ending? (3) Notice the literary reference. In this case, does it shed light in a new way? Is it as clear as it should be? (4) Finally, notice the punctuation. Is yours as varied as the punctuation in this essay? What does her command of punctuation and mechanics allow her to do that a less skilled writer could not?

4.3.Student Work Analyzing Audience and the Appeals

The audience a persuasive essay addresses (supportive, wavering, or hostile) can be readily identified by the thoughtful student who bases his or her analysis on the evidence presented in an essay. Students in an in-class essay wrote the following two analyses. They were presented an essay and analyzed it within a three hour time frame. The first essay was correctly analyzed to have been written to a hostile audience; the second, to a wavering audience. Note the parenthetical references. The first acknowledges page numbers; the second, page and paragraph numbers.

4.3.1. In-class Analytical Essay

Freedom of Speech

America the beautiful exists as much in the idea of freedom as it does in our attractive mountains and streams. It is a land where freedom of expression, ownership, religion, and, most importantly, speech are the fundamentals of our establishment. Most Americans would agree that a discussion of the limits of free speech can create a heated debate. Obviously, in his essay "Protecting Freedom of Expression of the Campus," Derek Bok writes knowing that he touches upon a sensitive issue. To convince a hostile audience, he uses a logical and an ethical appeal and avoids an emotional one.

Bok uses three distinct forms of logic to present his reasoning to his audience. First, he uses induction to present the information about the conflict. Then, he adds it up to conclude that "in talking with students, they should seek to educate and persuade, rather than resort to ridicule or intimidation, recognizing that only persuasion is likely to produce a lasting, beneficial effect" (Bok 2). He further concludes that "through such efforts, I believe that we act in the manner most consistent with our ideals as an educational institution and most calculated to help us create a truly understanding, supportive community" (2). Next, by deduction, Bok uses the law to reason with his audience. He works off the belief that "speech is protected by the First Amendment" (1). He states that symbols are a form of free speech; therefore, they must be protected under the first amendment.

Also, in this essay, the author uses patterns of logical development. He uses cause and effect to illustrate many possibilities. He says, "Our society has wrestled with this problem for many years ... [and] if we begin to forbid flags, it is only a short step to

prohibiting offensive speakers” (2). Additionally, he uses an example of illustration to prove his point of logical development. He predicts that “the worst offenders will simply find other ways to irritate and insult” (2). Therefore, Bok presents a clear logical appeal.

When addressing a difficult audience, one must present an ethical appeal as well. Bok uses outside authority, common ground, knowledge, and a reasonable tone to convince the audience of his point. He uses the law as an outside authority in order to emphasize the importance of its acceptance. He often gives examples of the First Amendment to the Constitution and refers back to different Supreme Court rulings. He states, “[T]he display of swastikas or Confederate flags clearly falls within the protection of the free speech clause of the First Amendment” (1). Bok also uses common ground to approach his opposition. Up front, he agrees that “it is unclear to what extent the First Amendment is enforceable” (1). He also states that we as a society are faced with a conflict between free speech and mutual respect.

Next, he uses his knowledge of the subject and discusses in some detail the particulars of an incident at Harvard University where students hung flags that were thought offensive. This information makes him creditable. Lastly, he uses a reasonable tone. For example, when he says, “It is important to distinguish between the appropriateness of such communications and their status under the First Amendment” (1), he offers his point in such a neutral way that even the most extreme reader should not be offended. He also uses this reasonable tone to discuss possible solutions to the problem of offensive free speech. In a very sensitive manner, Bok says that we should respond to insensitive acts by educating those who commit them and helping them to understand the repercussions of their acts. In conclusion, Bok uses an ethical appeal to inform and persuade.

Finally, Derek Bok addresses his audience with much caution. One reason he does not present an emotional appeal is because the use of connotative language is seldom present. Instead, he uses mostly denotative language. For example, he uses neutral words when he says, “I share this view and regret that the students involved saw fit to behave in this fashion” (1). The words in this sentence are obviously neutral and his claim is definitely reasonable. He also gently asserts that the rules to free speech must be applied to everyone. Next, Bok uses examples in his writing with no pattern of connotative language. In an example cited earlier, he says, “[T]he display of swastikas or Confederate flags clearly falls within the protection of the free speech clause of the First Amendment” (1) and adds that “[t]hese rulings apply to all agencies of government, including public universities” (1). In these two sentences, Bok is careful not to step on anyone’s toes. He uses mostly informal language with no connotative patterns. The closest he comes to this is when he says, “[T]he wisest course is to speak with those who perform insensitive acts” (2), but “wise” and “insensitive” are very subtle and the exceptions. Overall, he gives advice to all in a way that has clearly no intention to aggravate.

In looking at the evidence in “Protecting Freedom of Expression of the Campus,” one must make the inductive leap that Bok is speaking to a hostile audience. He uses a clear logical appeal, develops an effective ethical appeal, and backs away from any emotional ones.

Editor’s note: This is a well-organized essay with good use of categories, subcategories, and of the repetition of key words. Note how efficiently examples are given for each category and how convincing the induction becomes when all the evidence is tallied.

4.3.2. In-class Analytical Essay

Headless

Charles Krauthammer in his article, “Of Headless Mice ...and Men,” writes passionately about cloning, especially that of humans. He is writing to a wavering audience, trying to convince them that cloning is wrong and needs to be stopped.

This piece contains appeals to logic and reasoning. He tells about the cloned sheep, Dolly, and then proceeds to tell about the creation of headless mice and tadpoles. This and other evidence builds up to help the reader inductively conclude that there is a problem. He asks, “Why should you be panicked? Because humans are next”(1.4). With all the evidence, the above statement is a logical conclusion reached by inductive reasoning. He also uses deductive reasoning. He does this by showing how scary and wrong these headless clones of mice and tadpoles are. This leaves us with the deductive conclusion that since those are scary and wrong, doing the same thing to humans would be too.

Krauthammer uses rebuttal to show a point for the other side of the argument. He says the reason for producing these animals, and possibly humans is “for their organs-fully formed, perfectly useful, ripe for plundering”(1.3). He also uses various patterns of logic in the essay, for example, comparing normal cloning with headless cloning. He says that a regular clone has “its own independent consciousness”(1.9) while a headless one would “keep you—your consciousness-going indefinitely”(1.10). Krauthammer also makes a statement of cause and effect saying, “[O]ne form of cloning will inevitably lead to the other”(1.11). Overall, he utilizes appeals to logic to try and sway the reader to his side.

He also uses appeals to ethics or credibility. He includes outside sources throughout. He quotes Lee Silver, a Princeton biologist, and another biology professor, Lewis Wolpert. He also uses the University of Texas and the University of Bath’s research experiments. He mentions President Clinton’s ban of federal funds for human-cloning research as well.

One could question whether or not he uses a reasonable tone. His word choices are highly connotative and emotionally charged. Some more neutral words would have balanced out the others and made his tone more reasonable.

However, his knowledge of cloning is impressive. He lists some of the technical barriers to making a headless human clone, for instance, when he discusses “suppressing the equivalent head gene in man, incubating tiny infant organs to grow into larger ones that adults could use, and creating artificial wombs”(1.5). He includes the two universities’ experiments, their processes, and their results. For the mice, scientists found and deleted the gene that produces the head in a thousand embryos, and then four “were born alive, but died instantly because they could not breathe”(1.2). He uses testimonies to show that the “ethical barriers are already cracking”(1.6). One of these is Professor Wolpert who “finds producing headless humans ‘personally distasteful’ but given the shortage of organs, does not think distaste is sufficient reason”(1.6).

He does make an attempt at finding common ground between himself and the opposition. He does not understand or agree with all their reasons; however, he acknowledges the shortage of human organs is a problem that must be addressed, although he emphatically states that cloning is not the answer. He uses an ethical appeal throughout the essay to convince his audience to share his beliefs about cloning.

Finally, Krauthammer uses a strong emotional appeal throughout. He uses connotative words in distinct patterns. For the opposition, the connotative words are negative. Some examples include “animal monsters”(1.2), “manufacturing headless creatures”(1.2), “loomed so ominously”(1.3), “became a god”(1.4), “mutant”(1.4), “distasteful”(1.5), “deliberate creation of deformed dying quasi-human life”(1.6), and “bioethical abyss”(1.6). He also says, “[T]here is no grosser corruption”(1.7), calling cloning “the ultimate vanity ... [and a] technology of narcissism”(1.10). These negative word choices paint a clear picture of the author’s negative opinions of the opposition’s stance.

His examples are also very vivid and emotional. For example, he says that “with a single cell taken from say, your finger, you produce a headless replica of yourself, a mutant twin, arguably lifeless, that becomes your own personal, precisely tissue-matched organ farm”(1.4). Another example discusses the creation of “artificial wombs . . . [and that] it might be difficult to recruit sane women to carry headless fetuses to their birth/death”(1.5). Both of these examples produce visual and emotionally charged pictures for the reader.

Through his use of logical, ethical, and emotional appeals, Krauthammer writes to a wavering audience. He tries to convince the audience to join his side and share his beliefs that cloning, especially headless, is wrong, saying, “The time to put a stop to this is now”(1.12).

Editor’s note: This essay, like the last, correctly identifies the audience and introduces analytical topics and subtopics well. The writer has a good vocabulary and knows what is important.

4.4. Samples of Student Work Analyzing Support

The critical analysis of the support for a thesis is perhaps the most important and beneficial analysis a student can learn. To help in this process, four student essays are offered. Note that the process is the same with the exception of one being a point-by-point approach, organizing the critique around an essay’s major points, while the rest are category- by-category, organizing the critiques around bias, warrants, reasoning, and evidence. The point-by-point does this also, but in each of three or four major points in an essay. The student essays that follow, with one exception, show a good understanding of the fundamentals.

4.4.1. Category-by-Category

Talking Back to “The Black Avenger”

If you should ever be a caller to the Ken Hamblin Show and express doubt in the American Dream, be prepared for a showdown. In Ken Hamblin’s essay “The Black Avenger,” his thesis statement is a declaration that the American Dream, in which hard work reaps success, is very much alive and accessible to Blacks. Hamblin states that Black Americans need to “get over it” (374) and put their energy into achieving success. Hamblin expands his thesis, stating that he sees a lot of White guilt in America. He declares it counter-productive in that it produces and perpetuates inequality. Hamblin’s powerful emotional tone is not accompanied by enough factual information. After all, there is racism and other obstacles that one might meet

on the road to success. Hamblin rests his whole premise on his own personal success and his experience as a radio talk show host.

If Ken Hamblin didn't possess such powerful biases, his essay would never have made it to first base. His major bias is that he is a Black man who rose to the top, breaking away from a ghetto lifestyle. Hamblin's bias provides undisputable support for his call to Black Americans, urging pursuit of the American Dream. However, it is not strong enough to answer the question: who else, how many others? Hamblin's second bias is that he is a professional talk show host. This gives him credibility since he has already achieved success. Also, it would be generally agreed upon, that if one talks to hundreds of callers, that person would have a good understanding about how people feel on certain issues. This is offset by his weakened image, hurt by Hamblin's description of his motorcycle attire: black leather everything, accessorized with a black helmet. He then declares himself a look-a-like to Darth Vader. Hamblin adds a Superman quote that only continues to reduce his credibility by increasing the suggestion of immaturity. One might be understandingly skeptical to believe such an author.

Ken Hamblin's warrants are too broad and stretched too far to reach his conclusions. It is reasonable to imply a shared acceptance that Hamblin is successful. However to further imply that if one Black person is successful, all can be, is an exaggeration. Using only himself as "living proof" (376) just does not cut it. Hamblin preaches to Black people that they should "get over it" (379), and quit "whining" (379) about the past: there is more to be gained by a quest for the American Dream. One claim he makes is that doors are open to everyone in America. Hamblin argues the theory, but reality is another debatable issue. A second warrant he makes is that hard work is a virtue to be rewarded. Unfortunately everyone acknowledges that this does not always hold true. In support of his warrant regarding White guilt, Hamblin relies on the audience's understanding of the media and how it regulates information. While the claim is true—years of slavery and Black oppression can create guilt—the depth of the guilt felt a hundred years later is questionable. Hamblin's warrants are either exaggerated, questionable, or over generalized.

Hamblin's use of logic further exemplifies his tendency towards being too broad with his essay's support. In his only rebuttal, Hamblin concedes to racism in that "oh sure there's still the old-guard club or snooty neighborhood" (380) but claims that it is exaggerated and not an absolute deterrent. There are some other minor references to opposing viewpoints, but Hamblin also abruptly dismisses them. Exemplification is used frequently but it is always alluding to Hamblin's success in life and his coming up from a ghetto. Some other success stories would have made Hamblin's essay much more convincing. Deductive reasoning is used, centering around Hamblin's personal accomplishments. Basically, the reasoning is that since Hamblin achieved success and Hamblin is Black, Black people can achieve success. Hamblin survived the ghetto; Hamblin is Black, therefore all Black people can survive and succeed. The reasoning here is just too much of a stretch. Hamblin uses inductive reasoning by blaming "decades of liberal propaganda which deny that today opportunity exists" (381) for all Americans as the cause of the myth of the "Hobbled Black Man." That statement is too opinionated and unspecific to prove that this is indeed a myth. About the only strong logic Hamblin used was in defense of White guilt being counterproductive. Using deductive reasoning, he implied that guilt "inspires pity" (378) for Blacks. Pitied people are not equal to others; therefore Blacks "never stand tall as a people [expecting] to be treated as equals, so long as [they] allow [themselves] to be patronized in this fashion" (379). Unfortunately this logic was not supporting a major

claim. In general, Hamblin's reasoning was weak and insufficient.

The strength of the evidence Hamblin uses to support his claims is mixed, with the balance on the side of weakness. Hamblin states that there are middle-class Black Americans who have achieved "success as educated and sophisticated Americans" (380). He does not specify who these successful people are, nor does he mention the people that have not been successful. Hamblin also does not take obstacles into consideration. He writes that "today mainstream America has opened its full society and culture to [Blacks]" (379). Hamblin states that White people "have supported legislation that makes the American Dream truly accessible to all Black citizens" (380). These statements are far too general. Specific instances would have made the points more believable. Hamblin states "[W]e have an opportunity to realize all the benefits of being an American" (374) and Black people owe it to their forefathers to pursue the American Dream, which they made available. What opportunity? This is entirely too vague. Stating that Blacks owe it to their forefathers, sounds like Hamblin is laying a guilt trip on them. This is also unfair since obstacles have not been considered. Hamblin refers to his callers as proof that there are many "healthy Black Americans" (381) telling "the truth about Black people and their good fortune to be Americans" (381). This example only speaks for the callers. What about poor people? Perhaps they do not have a phone or even a radio. The most specific fact that supports White guilt comes from Hamblin's statement that he received more than 5,000 requests for his Certificate of Absolution. This "spoof" (375), to pardon White people, is verifiable. However, Hamblin's reference to his radio talk show callers saying, "[L]ook I personally didn't do it" (375) has questionable strength. How many people called and was this poll from an accurate sampling of Americans? Hamblin did have one very strong piece of evidence: he presents himself as "proof" (376) that the American Dream works for Black people. Again, using only one person is weak support for his claim. As the Black Avenger, Hamblin tries to clear the path to the American Dream from theoretical obstacles; however, to reach the impoverished in his reading audience, Hamblin should have included concrete evidence. Hamblin's proof was not sufficiently convincing. His intent, to motivate Black people to achieve, was not carried out effectively.

In conclusion, the narrow-mindedness of Hamblin is what doomed his essay. He had some indisputable evidence for his thesis: he is Black, lived through poverty, and then determinedly achieved success. However, without any factual information other than his radio talk show callers, his reasoning was weak. Hamblin could have easily included other successful Black people to make his essay more convincing, but for some reason, perhaps conceit, he chose not to. Therefore Hamblin's inductive leap—that if one Black person can be successful, all Blacks can be—is too much of a stretch. His vague references to successful middle class Blacks and aspiring forefathers provide feeble support for his thesis. Hamblin's deductions are oversimplifications. Use of one-sided support and a lack of concrete evidence all contributed to the weakness of Hamblin's essay.

Works Cited

Hamblin, Ken. "The Black Avenger." *Rereading America*. Fifth Edition. Eds. Gary Colombo, Robert Cullen, and Bonnie Lisle. Boston: Bedford/St. Martin's 2001. 374-382. Print.

Editor's note: This well-organized essay addresses all four of the categories in a direct and thorough manner. Notice the topic sentences that introduce each category and subcategory, a must when analyzing so the reader knows exactly what is being examined. Also, note the brief summation at the end of each category's analysis, giving an evaluation of the topic analyzed; these are effectively added up in the conclusion. Finally, what makes this essay stand out is the author's tone. Her use of lively, connotative language makes it persuasive and fun to read.

4.4.2. A Point-by-Point Analysis

Is Feminism Failing?

Katha Pollitt depicts the feminist movement as a very slow evolutionary process in her essay "Why Boys Don't Play with Dolls." She infers that research studies documenting cognitive differences between the sexes are unnecessary in order to grasp "why boys and girls still seem so unlike" (Pollitt 624). Pollitt challenges the reader to examine how adults "tentatively ... embrac[e]" (625) feminism and, therefore, delay progress with the messages we convey to children. Although she adequately and consistently supports her thesis with common assumptions and sound conclusions, her points contain one-sided examples and overly emotional language.

The author chooses the ever popular, controversial Barbie doll as the subject for her first supporting point. As a woman and feminist, Pollitt's bias focuses solely on Barbie's physical appearance—"sexy, thin, stylish" (625). She equates society's overemphasis on looks with women's frustration in their pursuit of perfection or "the impossible American ideal" (625). Pollitt's contempt for sexist toys is apparent when she questions why a mother would "[i]nflict Barbie" (625) on a friend's child against her own beliefs. She admits that some feminists like Barbie, but omits the reasons for this approval. This leaves the reader feeling that her point is not fully developed. Perhaps some feminists see the positive aspects of Barbie: she drives her own fancy sports car, owns a "dream house," and, in recent years, added a briefcase and doctor's attire to her wardrobe. Pollitt concludes her point with sound deductive reasoning saying that because society places a high value on a woman's physical appearance—a commonly accepted assumption that even small children are well aware of-- the Barbie tradition "however ambivalently, must be passes along" (625).

In her second supporting point, Pollitt presents a prevalent assumption that parents are uncomfortable with boys who do not pursue sports or other traditionally male activities. She states that women, even if they find sports senseless, do not "discourag[e] their sons from participating" (625) because they "see athletics as part of manliness" (625). Her premises are true. However, Pollitt portrays sports as silly and a waste of time, again from a narrow-minded viewpoint. She supports this perspective by saying that she "know[s] a lot of women, feminists" (625) who feel this way. Despite the fact that sports are male-dominated, she neglects to acknowledge girls' increasing participation in athletics. This viewpoint makes her illustration seem outdated. Many women enjoy watching and participating in sports, and these days, mothers are just as likely to attend their daughters' soccer games as their sons'.

Pollitt contends that biological theories provide parents with an excuse; they permit parents to "take the path of least resistance" (625). She supports her logical reasoning that it takes more effort to change one's way of thinking than to change habits by her example of the exhausted working mother who picks up her sons socks rather than insist he do it himself.

Using highly emotional language, she asserts that parents can also feel less guilty about buying children “unbelievably sexist junk” (625). Alluding to a popular book on male/female differences with her Mars and Venus example, the author claims that these theories allow adults to believe that the world is “the way it’s supposed to be” (625) and there is not a great deal that can be done to change it. This point supports her perception that the feminist movement is progressing far too slowly.

The essay’s strongest and most effective points are contained in Pollitt’s last three paragraphs. Despite inflexible sex roles and adults’ cursory efforts to make them more pliable, the author claims that “the world of rigid and hierarchical sex roles evoked by determinist theories is ... passing away” (626). Pollitt insists that children’s futures are promising as evidenced by those that break stereotypes, such as “the boy who . . . takes cooking in his afterschool program” and “the girl who collects . . . A-pluses in science” (626). She also states that approximately half of today’s medical students are women and more men are now entering the nursing field. These reasonable examples support her assumption that “people aspire to what is possible” (626). Perhaps parents deserve more credit than Pollitt gives them.

Pollitt suggests that, basically, we are all responsible for teaching children values and shaping behaviors. Feminism, “the ideology of flexible and converging sex roles” (626) as defined by the author, is only one aspect of children’s education and development. She wants her audience to be aware that children are inundated with messages every day about male and female roles. Even though the author’s bias undermines the overall effectiveness of her essay, her summary paragraphs compensate for the essay’s weaknesses.

Works Cited

Pollitt, Katha. “Why Boy’s Don’t Play with Dolls.” *Literature for Composition*. Ed. Sylvan Barnet et al. 5th ed. New York: Longman, 2000. 624-626. Print.

Editor’s note: In this critical analysis, the student chooses a point-by-point organization, identifying and showing the effects of bias, reasoning, evidence, and assumptions after a topic sentence identifying each major supporting point. (1) Compare the two approaches. Which gives the clearer analysis, the category-by-category approach or the point-by-point one? (2) What is lost when a writer does not sum up the analysis at the end of each point? (3) Note also the conclusion in this essay. Does it inductively pull the reader into the author’s claim?

4.4.3. Category-by-Category

John D’Entremont’s Review of Disney’s *Pocahontas*

John D’Entremont, a history professor at Randolph-Macon Woman’s College, reviews Disney’s *Pocahontas* in an essay that examines the liberties Disney takes in portraying this tale. He emphasizes Disney’s ignorance of both the history and the folklore surrounding *Pocahontas* and effectively argues that this contributes to social problems. His essay asks this question: is it right to severely alter historical and legendary events to create a new story and present it as unaltered, even if it is for children? D’Entremont adequately supports his claim that Disney

contributes to cultural illiteracy by butchering both the history and the folklore behind their movie *Pocahontas*.

D'Entremont's bias as a historian, rather than harm his argument, tends to give him more credit; however, it also makes his warrants and arguments a bit predictable. His warrants are quite obvious. As a historian, he would obviously disagree with blatant misrepresentations of history. In response to Disney's claim that the movie is "history, folklore and magic rolled up in one- inspiring love and respect for all things of the Earth," he writes, "Apparently the key ingredient in producing love and respect for all things of the Earth is magic- here translated as the art of making nearly everything up" (1161). This clever remark does several things for his essay. Its wittiness promises an entertaining essay, helping give the reader the patience to read past the first paragraph. It also makes his bias very clear, and introduces his warrant - that history and folklore are both too important to trivialize with such embellishment and falsehoods. The bulk of his essay deals with directly contradicting Disney's portrayal of the characters in *Pocahontas*.

D'Entremont is not sparing in his use of historical fact and knowledge of folklore to illuminate the film's inaccurate portrayals. He describes the liberties Disney takes with each of the main characters in *Pocahontas*. He writes of the protagonist's portrayal that "[t]he filmmakers correctly portray [John] Smith as seeking adventure more than money, though they omit his strident, alienating preoccupation with his own fame and reputation, as well as his chronic belligerence" (1162). He states that the movie "transforms [Smith] into a heterosexual Walt Whitman" (1162). D'Entremont uses facts effectively in his attempt to convince the reader of Disney's distortion of history. The witty remark about Whitman adds greatly to his essay through its humorous effect and its not-so-subtle connotation of absurdity. It keeps readers interested while mocking Disney's version of the character, and D'Entremont manages it without seeming unreasonable. He also writes that Disney oversimplifies the tensions between the natives and the Europeans to a purely racial conflict, as the writers seem to have destroyed any reference to Powhatan culture. He blames this on Disney's attempt to be non-offensive by ignoring both the hunting aspect of the Powhatan culture and the conflict of religion that really caused most of the tensions. He states that "[t]he effect of this, however, is actually to diminish, not celebrate, the struggle of the various Indians and English ... who attempt to build bridges to another, profoundly different culture" (1164). He argues quite well that the movie defeats its own moral of respecting other cultures when it destroys nearly all differences between the cultures in question. The facts he presents lead to the conclusion that Disney does not care at all about the correctness of its movie, especially if its family appeal (and therefore profit) is at stake.

D'Entremont's most emphatic point, however, is his defense of folklore as a kind of cultural archetype. He writes that Smith's most likely false story of his rescue from certain death by Pocahontas was not passed down as a legend for no reason. This story "resonated with deep and serious cultural need" (1165). While Pocahontas rescues Smith from execution by her father in the movie as in the legend, the film does not leave it at that. Smith goes on to take a bullet for her father, the Powhatan chief, rescuing him from another Englishman. Turning Smith into the rescuer, D'Entremont argues, changes the meaning of the legend. He writes, "The Indians become not a proud people choosing to show mercy to a possible enemy, but a lucky people beholden to their English benefactor" (1165). The assumption behind the deduction in this essay is that both folklore and historical fact are important to the understanding of the cultures they affect. Disney changes this folklore and history, presenting them as unaltered. Deductive reasoning thus states that Disney is an impediment to the understanding of cultural development.

D'Entremont focuses on using facts from history and references to folklore to adequately support his logical reasoning. He comes across as very credible and reasonable, and his witty remarks add greatly to his otherwise somewhat lengthy and bland review. His examples are well done, and they support his warrants well. However, his argument that Disney would contribute to a decline in cultural understanding is a bit of a reach. He supports it well, and the strong sense of credibility he exudes makes up for this. All in all, John D'Entremont's review of Disney's *Pocahontas* is reasonable, well-supported, and convincing.

Works Cited

D'Entremont, John. "Review of Disney's *Pocahontas*." *Literature for Composition*. Ed. Sylvan Barnet et al. 5th ed. New York: Longman, 2000. 1161-1165. Print

Editor's note: Categories and subcategories are more seamlessly introduced than in the previous essay due to the use of synonyms, and it is a more entertaining essay due to the use of sharp, connotative language and subtle, cutting evaluations. Since the bias is simple, he begins the essay on it and immediately goes to the next most complex category, warrants, in the same paragraph, ending on the underlying belief that he thinks supports most of the essay's major points. In the development of a major section on evidence, he introduces major points, showing how they are supported. He saves the logic section for last, and although smaller in content, it emphasizes the importance of deduction in D'Entremont's final emphatic point and the "assumption" (warrant) that ties the argument and essay together. This writer's clear understanding of warrants, bias, evidence, and logic allow him to creatively develop an analysis, surprising us with word choices and delighting us with his thoughts.

4.4.4. Point-by-point

A Critical Response to "The Harmful Myth of Asian Superiority"

Nowadays, as in previous days, there seems to be an a general *adpopulum* awareness of the significant success that Asians are making, not only in their own respective countries, but also right here in the United States of America. The success that they achieve in all facets of education, industry, and business, in my opinion, is mostly attributable to their efforts, discipline, and excellent work ethic. This general public perception of the Asian success, whether correct or incorrect, is one that is admitted to by Ronald Takaki in his article "The Harmful Myth of Asian Superiority." However, after admitting to the fact that "Asian Americans have increasingly come to be viewed as "a model minority," Takaki goes on to say that they are not as successful as claimed, nor are they models for society. Takaki does not stop here. The thesis of Takaki's essay claims that this apparent, yet false success of Asian Americans "pits minorities against each other and generates African-American resentment towards Asian Americans." Unfortunately, Takaki fails to bring any evidence whatsoever in support of this claim and therefore is unsuccessful in validating the thesis of his essay.

In the second paragraph of Takaki's essay, after correctly identifying the unarguable view that Asians are seen as successful by the media as both entrepreneurs and students, he attempts to refute these claims of success. However, the author fails to identify or define

what he means by “success.” For example, in trying to negate Japanese American success, he says, “While Japanese-American men in California earned an average comparable to Caucasian men in 1980, they did so only by acquiring more education and working more hours.” Actually what the author has done is to openly admit to the greater success that Japanese Americans have had as students, as well as the fact that they are harder workers than their Caucasian counterparts. To many people hard work and acquiring a good education are the primary criteria for success. He also admits that “college-educated Asian Americans are entering the profession and earning good salaries,” and that “three-quarters of Korean greengrocers...came to America with a college education.” To many, these people are undoubtedly considered successful.

Takaki makes many unsupported statements in his essay. For example, he admits that some Asian groups do have higher incomes than their Caucasian counterparts but he accounts for this by saying that they necessarily have more families, without giving any statistical evidence. When pitting Japanese-Americans against Caucasians and making an assertion as to the reason for one group’s success over the other, he provides no support for his view from any external sources. In many places within the article Takaki gives numbers of this, proportions of that, percentages of this group, percentages of that group; however not once does he cite a source.

The author also makes many invalid arguments. For example the author states that “while thousands of Vietnamese American young people attend universities, others are on the streets.” This is a pointless argument since there are people on the streets from every ethnicity. There are whites, African-Americans, Hispanics, and many other groups who can also be found on the streets. One cannot classify an entire group or take away certain characteristics of a group because of a few who act in contrast to the way the majority act. The second fallacy that the author seems to assume in his argument is that all the Chinese in America live in the Chinatowns of New York, Los Angeles, and San Francisco. Since Chinatowns are often poor places with many people who speak little English, if any at all, who have little western education that is valid in the United States, and who have generally a lower standard of living, it is obviously not fair to take the statistics of these Chinatowns, saying they represent Chinese Americans and then compare them to the country as a whole. Most successful Chinese do not live in Chinatowns, and many have major positions in large corporations. Besides, as mentioned earlier, income alone is not the only criterion for success.

Another point that the author makes, which in my view is not well established, is that “In 1988 only 8% of Asian Americans were ‘officials’ and ‘managers’ compared with 12% for all groups.” Here the author gives us a figure for only one isolated year; this does not give an overall picture of what it has been in the past or how it is growing, and it certainly was not the figure for the year in which the article was written. Secondly, the source from where this information was ascertained is not stated. Lastly, when the author refers to the twelve percent for *all groups*, he does not tell us which groups, and how *all groups* are classified. This may put a thought into the reader’s mind that Takaki may be manipulating this statistic to his own advantage, as he does not give a clear picture of whom he is comparing the Asian American with.

Ronald Takaki does make a valid point in stating, “The ‘model minority’ image homogenizes Asian Americans and hides their differences.” However one cannot deny a group’s characteristics and qualities as a whole because of differences within it. He concludes by saying that Asian American “‘success’ is largely a myth,” and that the celebration of

Asian Americans as a “model minority” perpetuates their inequality and complicates relations between them and African-Americans.

As we have seen, the author has not given a good, fair, valid, or accurate argument in overturning the idea that Asian-Americans are not successful. Takaki provides even weaker evidence in trying to prove his thesis that comparing Asian-American success to the lack of African-American success “pits” them against each other, causing racism. In fact Takaki provides absolutely no evidence to show this, not one sentence, not one word: naught, zip, zero. I must therefore conclude that Ronald Takaki’s argument lacks both strength and evidence in establishing any claim that Asian-Americans are not as successful as people think they are, and that their “media portrayed success” spurs resentment between them and African-Americans.

Editor’s note: Although the writer has made many very intelligent observations, the essay is not as organized as it might be. Why not? (1) Is this a point-by-point critique or a category-by-category one? Or does the writer mix the two? (2) Although the writer deals with assumptions, evidence, and reasoning, do we have a good sense as to which of these areas are strengths and weaknesses? Why or why not? Compare this essay to the earlier ones. Which are clearer and easier to understand? Why?

4.5. Student Work Using Classical Argumentation

The following research papers take different stands on issues surrounding the roll of organized religion and the presence of God. Two rebuttals of opposition points were required. Included are the outlines, texts, and works cited sheets. Read both essays and review editorial comments at the end.

4.5.1. Student Sample: Argumentative Essay

(Research paper with two rebuttals)

Glimpses of God

Outline

Thesis Statement: Science has been on the trail of God for some time, and, ironically, the more that is learned, the more evidence points towards higher governing forces in the universe.

I. Background

- A. Children in Church
- B. Spending time with clergy
 - 1. Beer and cigarettes
 - 2. Father T. incident
- C. Failure of organized religion
 - 1. Other options to Godlessness
 - 2. Quote, Behe: scientists and theologians agree

II. Contention

- A. Sheler, "New Scientific revelations..."
 - 1. Underlying organization to universe
 - 2. Without gravity, time, or inertia universe is impossible
- B. Coincidence of factors permitting life
 - 1. Fossil bacteria on Mars
 - 2. Exobiologists study Europa and Callista
- C. Life emerges regardless
 - 1. Stenger quote "the notion that laws of physics..."
 - 2. Proteins organize at slightest opportunity
- D. Volstok
 - 1. Liquid lake under glacier/ stats
 - 2. Core samples reveal bacteria 2 miles under ice
 - 3. Goldman quote "strongly suggest microorganisms..."
- E. Human physiology
 - 1. Humans arrive from combination of two bacteria
 - 2. Behe quote "many exceedingly complex..."
- F. Intelligence
 - 1. Miele quote "if Chixulub..."
 - 2. Intelligence, not chance
- G. Self-awareness
 - 1. Davies quote "universe has organized..."
 - 2. Humans are universe's self perception
 - 3. Every living thing plays integral role
 - 4. Finding place is religion's primary goal
 - 5. Frost poem "What but design..."
- H. Concession
 - 1. This theory does not contradict Church beliefs
 - 2. Logical understanding brings believers back into fold

III. Refutation

- A. Religious point of view
 - 1. Who: religious people
 - 2. What: reject evolution
 - 3. Why: lack of open mind
- B. Analysis
 - 1. Assumptions: God created world 6,000 years ago
 - 2. Reasoning: Expand concepts to include reality
 - 3. Evidence: Flam quote "Big Bang..."
- C. Scientific point of view
 - 1. Who: scientists
 - 2. What: believe scientific world is it
 - 3. Why: Overconfidence
- D. Analysis
 - 1. Assumptions: today's science knows all
 - 2. Reasoning: we have learned so much in past 100 years
 - 3. Evidence: Volstok contradicts

IV. Conclusion

- A. Don't abandon faith, expand it
- B. Accepting deeper understanding of God is key to coming to peace

Glimpses of God

Sit, stand, sit, stand, sit, stand, kneel, stand, kneel.

As children, we always looked for the second “kneel” because it meant the Mass was about to be over for another week. Church was not fun. We sat on hardwood pews for over an hour listening to the same parables year after year. The priest would stand behind his pulpit and preach his wisdom in hopes of enlightening his flock to the wonders of God. As a teen, I often spent off time with different members of the clergy just hanging out or helping with some Church project. Behind the scenes, I would see them doing such things as drinking beer and smoking cigarettes. This behavior confused me; weren’t holy men supposed to set an example of piety and restraint? When I questioned my mother about this, she said simply, “Priests are human beings too.” She took a different approach to this some months later when I was strictly forbidden to see Father T., whom I had spent considerable time with, under any circumstances. She confided years later that she had learned the Church had been covering up more than one boy’s molestation in his past. This man was ruining young boy’s lives, and the Church was mopping up his trail to avoid a scandal.

This is one small example of issues involved with some religions. Others seem too preoccupied with more worldly pursuits to take a serious concern in their people. Regardless of these problems, some people still prefer structured religion. If it works for them, that’s all the better. Fortunately, for the rest of us, there is yet another option to the Church and godlessness. It has become evident to those of a more scientific bent that God may not only exist in religion. In fact, science has been on the trail of God for some time, and ironically, the more that is learned, the more evidence points to the reality of higher governing forces in the universe. At a 1999 conference on this subject at Berkeley, “several hundred scientists and theologians ...were virtually unanimous in agreeing that science and religion are now converging and what they are converging on is God” (Stenger 1). Finally it is becoming clear that the pursuit of God and spirituality is not exclusively the province of religion. Oddly, some of the people that see this most clearly are those of scientific disciplines.

God is alive and well inside and outside of each of us. In the words of Jeffrey Sheler, “New scientific reevaluations about supernovas, black holes, quarks and the big bang suggest to some scientists that there is a ‘grand design’ in the universe” (1205). When he says “grand design,” he can be only speaking of some sort of underlying central organization that humankind has yet to discover. If the universe, or what little we currently know of it, is looked at in terms of patterns, it is distressingly obvious that reality would be impossible without its own central organization. Without gravity, time, and inertia, the universe as humans see it would be inconceivable. These forces are not random, nor are the organization of our universe.

Some people say that due to the incalculable number of factors which had to coincide in order for life to be possible, that it is exclusive to Earth. Science has already disproved this theory with the discovery of fossil bacteria on Mars. Exobiologists are currently scrutinizing the ice-covered oceans of Europa and Callista (moons of Jupiter) in the belief that there may be microorganisms capable of withstanding the extreme temperatures. What this suggests to science is “the notion that the laws of physics are ‘fine-tuned’ for the existence of life” (Stenger 3). It is becoming increasingly clear every day that life will emerge, and even flourish, with the slightest provocation. It does not need perfect conditions or an invitation; given the slightest opportunity, it will begin to organize proteins into simple bacteria.

A perfect example of this is Lake Volstok, deep in the frozen regions of Siberia. Lake Volstok is over 1500 feet deep and larger than Lake Ontario, yet no one has ever looked upon its waters. Scientists know of its existence only through seismic and radar evidence because it exists some two miles under the Arctic ice. Hundreds of these liquid lakes have been found under the surface of these glaciers, yet Volstok is the largest and presents amazing opportunity. Research is only just beginning; however, core samples descending the depth of those two miles penetrated past the glacier and into frozen lake- water and “found frozen bacteria of diverse shapes and sizes...” (Goldman 2), and this evidence “strongly suggests that microorganisms may be living under Lake Volstok under daunting conditions of cold and high pressure” (2). These bacteria are thriving in conditions formerly thought impossible.

A recent article in *USA Today* about the human genome project stated that it has been determined that humans evolved from the combination of two types of bacteria strains hundreds of millions of years ago. If that is the case, what might these bacteria in Volstok, or those formerly on Mars, become given the proper conditions? Their blueprint for life is the same as for humans. Their evolution produced the human DNA that is responsible for all the physical functions that make us possible. In considering the organization of life at the cellular level, it is difficult to avoid the idea that larger forces are at work. Michael Behe argues, “[M]any of the exceedingly complex molecular machines that science has unexpectedly discovered in the cell appear to have been purposely designed, because of the way the parts work together” (6). However, who would such a designer be? God? Time? Evolution? The self-organization from the level of single-celled bacteria to the *Homo sapiens* is a process barely understood and has a probability of reoccurrence at something near the square of winning the lottery. Yet it goes further than this.

It is not only life that seems to be the end goal here. Scientists are beginning to suspect that intelligence itself is also programmed into this equation. Chaos theorist Frank Miele theorizes that “...if Chixulub (the asteroid believed to have doomed the dinosaurs) had missed the Earth it’s a better than even bet that some line of the dinosaur tree would have evolved increasing ability to extract, process, and use information from their environment (i.e. intelligence) similar to what the fossil record shows took place for mammals and especially primates” (Miele 3). This is effectively stating that intelligence is no coincidental occurrence, but an element in the greater organization of the universe. If the dinosaurs, which we generally think of as elephants with brains the size of peas, can develop intelligence, where does it end? The more we learn, the less random life appears. Yet it goes even a step further.

Australian physicist Paul Davies states, “[T]he universe, has organized its own self-awareness ... the impression of design is overwhelming,” (Stenger 4). That is a huge statement: the universe has organized its own self-awareness. The implications here are daunting. Davies seems almost to be implying that humans are the universe’s ability to perceive itself and must, therefore, be intimately connected to it in the same manner as eye or an ear to an animal. If this is the case, every living creature on the planet, and indeed in the universe, plays its own individual role in the creation of this larger unit. This parallels organic life, which is only possible through symbiosis with dozens of species of bacteria.

This brings us back to the beginning. Is it not religions’ primary goal to help unite followers with their own particular purpose in the cosmos? Religion exists to answer unanswerable questions and provide meaning for its people, so they may live with the peace of mind that, as huge as this world may be, they are a unique beings with a purpose which no other person

(past, present, or future) could ever fulfill. If this can be truly understood, religion becomes a completely personal experience requiring no church, Bible, or priest.

In the Robert Frost poem “Design,” the author illustrates this idea of “place” in a scene where a spider has caught a moth for its meal. He closes:

What but design of darkness to appall?—
If design govern a thing so small. (1272)

He concludes that if creatures so small as these are moved by design, then surely he, the narrator, must have his place and will not be forgotten by the powers that be.

Church officials will certainly say that these arguments are not only foolish but border on pagan beliefs. What is interesting about this theory is that it does not contradict Church teachings. It actually serves to strengthen faith long term by bringing people back into the fold through logic. If one can understand logically that God exists while receiving the emotional comfort of purpose from the Church, a major issue of contradiction is resolved and inner peace is one step closer.

Some people with strong religious ties will say this is not true. A Gallop Poll conducted in 1999 found that 47 percent of Americans believe God created human beings and the world six thousand years ago (Pope 1). This position essentially claims that all fossil records and dating techniques are either frauds or flat wrong. This is simply not the case. By assuming their religion is the only way and evolution untrue, they fail to see science is looking for God, too. There is no reason that evolution cannot fit neatly into Creationist theory. In 1951, Pope Pius XII evidenced this when he called the Big Bang theory “a confirmation of Creation” (Flam 1). Many believe God set the universe in motion and then evolution kept it moving.

Other people in the scientific disciplines may argue that religion and the search for “God” is for those who cannot accept the black-and-white finality of the scientific world. This can only be true based on the assumption that today’s science knows all there is to know about the nature of reality. We know this is false. Perhaps science has outlined all the major physical boundaries of this world visible to the naked eye, but hidden wonders such as Volstok have very important lessons to teach that contradict beliefs that many people hold dear. It must be recognized that a vast quantity of what we, as a race, know about the universe, we have learned over the past hundred years. What will we learn in the next hundred?

This is not to say that everyone should go out and abandon his or her faith. It is important, however, to be open to different concepts of “God” and to recognize that not all that the Church preaches is necessarily true. Consider that if we limit our perceptions of our Creator to the boundaries that each individual religion sets forth, everyone who is not a follower of that religion is damned, in whatever form that takes. Dante actually explained in his “Inferno” where exactly in Hell all those who died before Christ opened the gates to Heaven reside. They were forever damned because of bad timing. How can this thinking make any sense to rational people? No one, including any religion, can know what happens beyond the curtain of death. Accepting a deeper understanding of God and the universe is key in coming to peace with that reality. That can only come from the inside.

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4.5.2. Student Sample: Argumentative Essay

(Research paper with two rebuttals required)

Rationalism Takes Precedence Over Religion

Outline

Thesis statement: Through the ages, faith has proven a crutch for the masses and a political tool for society's leaders; today, however, the increasingly educated classes of the 21st century are rightfully placing a greater emphasis on the importance of rationalism over religion as a central theme in their lives.

- I. Religion has its roots in explaining the inexplicable.
 - A. Science is disproving religious interpretations.
 - 1. The story of creation is challenged.
 - 2. Darwin's evidence of evolution proves damning.
 - B. Superstition, an offshoot of religion, persists today despite its irrationality.
- II. Religion is a diversionary tactic to the grim realities of life.
 - A. Religion offers a false sense of hope.
 - B. Sigmund Freud and Karl Marx claim religion is a form of denial.
- III. Society leaders recognize religion makes the masses vulnerable to manipulation.
 - A. The Catholic Church tried to maintain its hold over the people by suppressing Galileo's scientific discoveries.
 - B. Society leaders fulfill political ambitions in the name of holy wars.
 - 1. Bosnia is an example.
 - 2. Palestine/Israel is an example.
 - 3. Leaders take advantage of the ties of church and state.
- VI. Concession: Not all religious are politically motivated.
 - A. Mother Theresa is an example.
 - B. Billy Graham is an example.
 - C. They cross the barriers of religion and become universal role models.
 - D. The fundamental flaw in their faith is that it is not based on fact.
- V. Rebuttal: Mother Theresa presents her personal cause in the guise of religion.

- A. She falsely reasons that by overlaying her charity work with her religious beliefs, the work takes on a sense of holiness.
 - 1. Writer Christopher Hitchens is critical of her motivations.
 - 2. Mother Theresa plays on her image to spread Christianity.
 - B. She is biased by her faith.
 - C. Her evidence for faith is not convincing.
- VI. Rebuttal: Billy Graham tries to stem the tide of rationalism.
- A. He is concerned at the trend among Americans to turn their backs on God as a central theme of their national identity.
 - B. His assumption that the trend is reversible is wrong.
 - 1. The First Amendment set a precedent by separating church and state.
 - 2. The trend is a natural progression of rationalism prevailing.
 - C. His evidence is weakened by faulty assumption.
 - D. He is biased by his faith.
- VII. Conclusion: The 21st century hails an era of enlightenment.
- A. Religion is simply a means of explaining the inexplicable.
 - B. Religion is a diversionary tactic.
 - C. Society leaders have used religion to manipulate the masses.
 - D. Mother Theresa proves people are still vulnerable to causes cloaked in the guise of religion.
 - E. Billy Graham's call to reverse the trend away from God, as part of the American national identity, is ill founded.
 - F. Americans are leading the way in asserting rationalism over religion.

Rationalism Takes Precedence Over Religion

Religion is a fallacy. It is man's answer to the unknown, a panacea for the ignorant, and a perceived means to the freedom of a heavenly after-life when, in reality, it makes the faithful slaves of conscience, of church, and of the state. According to Webster's New World College Dictionary, *religion* is defined as "any specific system of beliefs or worship, often involving a code of ethics and a philosophy" (1134). Over the centuries, mankind has divided into numerous religious groups, and these have resulted in some of the most powerful institutions ever to exist—Catholicism, Buddhism, Judaism, Islam, etc. Each is based on a belief in a God and eternal life. It is this concept of salvation which church leaders and politicians alike have used to manipulate the general populace for political and often material gain. Through the ages, therefore, faith has proven a crutch for the masses and a political tool for society's leaders; today, however, the increasingly educated classes of the 21st century are rightfully placing a greater emphasis on the importance of rationalism over religion as a central theme in their lives.

Man has traditionally used religion as a means of explaining phenomena beyond his understanding, and the interpretation has often been at odds with science. For example, the Bible starts with the story of creation: the seven-day wonder that establishes Adam and Eve in the Garden of Eden (7). Up until relatively recent times, this story was taken quite literally by many in the western world, until disproved by scientific discoveries. Nothing was more damning than Darwin's evidence of evolution. He concluded that the Old Testament was "no more to be trusted than the sacred books of Hindoos (sic) or the beliefs of any other barbarian" (qtd. in Bunn 3). Today's leading thinkers applaud his stand. Tufts philosopher Daniel Dennett

proclaims: “Science has won and religion has lost” (Haught 2). Rationalism, therefore, is definitely making inroads on religion.

There are those, however, who still cling to religious beliefs to explain the unknown. Native American writer, Leslie Silko, gives a poignant example of how religious ritual, even in modern times, can become pure superstition. In her essay “The Man to Send Rain Clouds,” she describes how a young Native American successfully pleads with a priest to sprinkle holy water on an old man’s grave: “He felt good because it was finished, and he was happy about the sprinkling of the holy water, now the old man could send them big thunder clouds for sure” (1228). The young Indian is ignorant of the Catholic interpretation of holy water as a symbolic purifier. Instead, he interprets it as a magical power capable of bringing much-needed rain. Superstition has been with us through the ages and looks set to stay. Like the false literal biblical interpretation of the “Book of Genesis,” Silko shows how people today use religion as a means to explain the unknown.

Religion has also been used as a diversion to smooth over the grim realities of life (Sheler 1204). The notion of an afterlife has offered a sense of hope, especially for those whose mortal life seems to be a living hell. Religion has been so ingrained in the human psyche that for much of our history it has taken extreme courage to speak out against it, even when refuting it with scientific evidence. Sheler cites some of the minority who have taken a stand: “All of this will strike some—as it did Sigmund Freud, Karl Marx, and other noted critics of religion—as wishful, largely superstitious thinking that does little more than sap human creativity and divert attention from earthly misery” (1204). Russian leader Karl Marx went so far as to describe religion as “the opium of the people” (Marx 1). He saw religion as a drug, a way of obliterating some of the harshness of everyday life. In his view, religion gave false hope, especially the promise of an afterlife. He wrote: “Religion is the sigh of the oppressed creature, the heart of a heartless world, and the soul of soulless conditions” (Marx 1). Freud and Marx were keenly aware that religion is a means to deny real-world drudgery and oppression.

Society’s leaders have long recognized the power of religious convictions and the susceptibility of these to manipulation. One of the most serious challenges to religion through the ages came from Italian physicist and astronomer, Galileo (“Galileo”). By developing the telescope, he was able to confirm that Earth was not the only planet in the universe; in fact, it was part of a complex solar system. However, the prevailing religion of the time, Catholicism, was preaching Ptolemaic cosmology, which placed the Earth as pivotal to all celestial movement. The church’s teaching implied God had created the Earth as the center of the universe, whereas Galileo’s findings implied the Earth was not central. This created a sense of disassociation between God and man, and the Catholic Church perceived Galileo’s newfound knowledge as a threat. He was called before the Inquisition in 1633 and, to save himself from torture, made to denounce his findings. He was then sentenced to imprisonment, a punishment later commuted to house arrest until his death in 1642.

Galileo was lucky. He got away with his life. Others have not been so fortunate. Thousands upon thousands have lost their lives in the futility of holy wars. For instance, the root of the present-day conflict in Bosnia dates back to Christian/Muslim wars fought centuries ago in the name of religion. In fact, they were really driven by political expansionist policies. Dominating the headlines now is fresh violence in Palestine and Israel between Jews and Muslims. Again, land rights are at the heart of the conflict, but political leaders have infused a sense of religious mission into the fighting. These clashes are particularly dangerous because they are driven by both “blood-lust” and religious fervor.

Take the Muslims fighting for jihad. They are indoctrinated up to five times a day at each mosque prayer call. Typical of the hysteria aroused, a jihad fighter is quoted as saying: “It is better to die with dignity than live as a slave” (Hirsh 1). The irony is that they are slaves to the politics of their mullahs (priests). Like the Bosnians and Serbs, they will never be able to achieve true and lasting peace until they can break the powerful ties of religion and state enmeshed in their cultures. Until then, they will remain vulnerable to the dictates of their societal leaders.

It would be wrong to claim that all religious have an ulterior motive to their spiritual beliefs. There are those who have proven totally dedicated to their convictions. In the East, for example, Mother Theresa won world acclaim for her missionary work. In the West, American Billy Graham is a renowned and committed preacher. They, like many believers, adhere to the basic tenets of faith, hope, and charity. Moreover, they cross the barriers of religion as exemplary role models for mankind. However, there is a fundamental flaw in the beliefs of these globally recognized religious leaders: their steadfast faith in God and an afterlife is not based on fact. What is more, by pushing their doctrines at the masses, they are helping create large followings malleable to society leaders’ whims.

Mother Theresa, like many society leaders, used the age-old tactic of presenting a personal cause in the guise of religion, describing her work as a direct response to Jesus: “The dying, the cripple, the mental, the unwanted, the unloved they are Jesus in disguise” (qtd. in Desmond 1). She believed that her God, Jesus, personified holiness; and that by tending the needy in the name of Jesus, her work, by conclusion, is holy. She is wrong. Through faulty deductive reasoning, she erroneously fused the concepts of her charity work with her religious beliefs in both her own mind and that of others (Cherry 2). Her premise that her charity work was for Jesus is untrue. It was for the direct benefit of those in her care. In reality, it was secular work; it was not holy. Her reasoning, therefore, was unsound. A critic to speak out vehemently against Mother Theresa was Christopher Hitchens in his biography, *The Missionary Position: Mother Teresa (sic) in Theory and Practice*. He notes:

One of the most salient examples of people’s willingness to believe anything if it is garbed in the appearance of holiness is the uncritical acceptance of the idea of Mother Teresa (sic) as a saint by people who would normally be thinking however lazily—in a secular or rational manner. (Cherry 2)

Mother Theresa applied the kind of reasoning that leaders through history have used to cloak a personal cause with the trappings of religion. She played on her image to win over converts and spread the Christian, and especially Catholic, word. She was driven by her strong, unshakable religious bias. As evidence of her beliefs, she described herself “like a little pencil in [Jesus’] hand ... He does the thinking. He does the writing” (qtd. in Desmond 2). This is not convincing. In fact, Mother Theresa was the cornerstone of her mission, and a skilled administrator. Hitchens observes:

I think she ha[d] a certain cunning. Her instincts [were] very good ... Very rightly is it said that she tend[ed] to the dying, because if you were doing anything but dying she ha[dn’t] really got much to offer. (Cheery 2-3)

Mother Theresa’s view of life was dominated by her religious bias. Her philosophy was based on the faulty logic that by proclaiming her work for Jesus, it took on a sense of holiness, an image that became fixed in the minds of many of her followers, even though her basic faith was not backed up with substantiating evidence.

In the West, prominent evangelist Billy Graham vainly attempts to stem the tide of rationalism, which is turning people away from religion. He expresses concern at an increasing trend in the United States “to take the traditional concept of God out of our

national life” (Graham 1). He calls for a reversal of this movement, but his assumption that it is reversible is ill founded. Americans took steps early in their history to separate church and state with the establishment clause of the First Amendment, thus prohibiting “the federal government from discriminating against or favoring any particular religion” (Brody, et al, eds. D-12). As evidence of his argument for reversal, Graham points out that God was intentionally meant to be a central theme of national government: today, the national currency still bears the words “In God we Trust”; the Bible is still an integral part of the country’s justice system and of government; and clerics remain part of the Armed Forces (Graham 1). However, even Billy Graham questions the permanency of these traditions (Graham 1). The move away from God at the federal level is simply a progression of the rational approach to religion adopted by the Founding Fathers over 200 years ago, when, as Thomas Jefferson described, they created “a wall of separation between church and state” (Brody, et al, eds. D-12). Like other church leaders, Graham is openly biased because of his faith. His efforts to put forward convincing evidence promoting faith at the federal level are hampered by his faulty assumption that Americans need to turn back and reassert God as a central theme of their national identity.

The 21st century hails a new era of enlightenment. Through advances in education, there is a general acceptance that, from the earliest of times, religious concepts have been used to explain the inexplicable. For many, religion has been an escape from the harsh world of reality. The irony is that a lot of these beliefs became deep-seated convictions, making the masses vulnerable to political manipulation. Today, rationalism is beginning to dominate, even though spiritual leaders such as Mother Theresa proved the world could still be gullible to the age-old tactic of promoting a personal cause in the guise of holiness (Cherry 2). These notions are the breeding grounds for religious vulnerability. Early Americans were keenly aware of how religion could be used against them at the political level. Many escaped a legacy of English and European regimes, which used the fear of damnation to meet political agendas. Americans saw the light early. They made their stand with the First Amendment. Now, there is an active movement to remove God even further from the national identity (Graham 1) as a means to ensuring total separation of church and state; and, more importantly, as a direct response to rationalism prevailing over religion.

Editor’s notes: These are both very good essays with detailed evidence, clear reasoning, and thoughtful warrants. Quotations are woven seamlessly into the narratives, and the mechanics are excellent. The rebuttals analyze, clearly defining opposition arguments and examining their weaknesses.

- (1) Outlines: the first is a topic outline and the second, a sentence outline. Which is the most effective?**
- (2) Introductions: they both create interest and take a strong stand.**
- (3) Contention: both clearly work to prove their theses appealing to logic and credibility. Which has the more emotional appeal? What is the effect?**
- (4) Concession: Again one has a more developed concession. What is the effect?**
- (5) Rebuttals: One clearly uses analytical terms and works very hard to examine assumptions, evidence, reasoning, and bias. The other takes one area of analysis and shows its weaknesses, not all. Again, what is the effect?**
- (6) Conclusion: Both do a good job of wrapping up their arguments and ending on a positive note, emphatically stressing the power of their convictions.**

(7) Although both are excellent, which is the more complete and should receive the higher grade? Why?

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5. SOPHOMORE LITERATURE CLASSES

The following literature classes fulfill the A.A. requirement for literature and/or for cross/multicultural studies

- * The only prerequisite for any of the Classes listed is English 1302 (or equivalent).
- * Any of the literature classes may be used for the cross/multicultural requirement.
- * Specific works taught in any class will vary by instructor.

ENGL 2327 Early American Literature

Let storytellers like Edgar Allen Poe entertain and thrill you with tales of the weird and wonderful. Witness the birth of modern poetry by the most unlikely couple, Walt and Emily. Get an “up close and personal” glimpse into the lives of early Americans such as a Native American shaman, a Puritan during the witch trials, a patriot during the American Revolution, a slave on a Southern plantation. The literature of famous writers and the journals and stories of the wide variety of people who lived in this country before the twentieth century depict the roots of the modern American experience, and help us understand our culture and literature today.

ENGL 2328 American Literature since the Civil War

(You can take this class without having taken American Literature I)

Swing into the Jazz Age in the sizzling streets of Harlem or the cool, white mansions of the rich and famous. Drift down the Mighty Mississippi or sit in on a poker game with the gamblers of the California gold rush. Share the insights of modern authors from diverse backgrounds as they live and mix—often uneasily—in America’s great melting pot. As we begin the next millennium, share the journey from the end of the Civil War throughout the twentieth century through the works that recreate the agony and the ecstasy of that time.

ENGL 2332 Literature of the Western World: Ancient to Renaissance

Gods and gorgeous goddesses, action heroes and vicious villains, monsters and magic, knights and damsels in distress, terrifying trips into the afterlife, murders most foul-- no, it’s not the late night movies. It’s early world literature. Yet, even with all the fabulous fantasy and the fascinating glimpses of cultures long ago and far away, the stories are about very human people motivated by powerful feelings we still feel and observe today: love, lust, envy, greed, anger, and ambition.

ENGL 2333 Literature of the Western World: Neo-classical to Present

(You can take this class without having taken World Literature I)

As the aristocracy wondered what to wear to the ball, other people began to look for different and better ways of life. What would a perfect world be like? How could the present one be changed? Should everyone be equal? Even women? (Good grief?) What role should science—with all its developing possibilities—play? And what about the inner world that psychology described? What really goes on in there? Explore intriguing ideas that present possible answers to these and other questions that still challenge us, as you encounter a variety of literature from different countries and from both past and present.

ENGL 2322 British Literature: Beginnings to Neo-classical

Imagine yourself in an Anglo-Saxon meadhall listening to the “scoop” sing about the daring feats of superhero Beowulf. Be transported to the Middle Ages with brave knights, fair ladies, and a variety of not-so-noble characters. Enjoy the passions and spectacle of Elizabethan drama, and find wit, romance, and faith in poetry. All these and more await your discovery of early British literature.

ENGL 2323 British Literature: Romanticism to Present

(You can take this class without having taken British Literature I)

The romantic poets’ glorification of nature, the effects of the industrial revolution, the influence of Freudian psychology and of scientific discoveries are all reflected in the literature of nineteenth century Britain. Twentieth century literature mirrors two devastating world wars and equally cataclysmic social and technological changes, as writers try to make sense of their world and their place in it, much as we do today.

ENGL 2353 Women in Literature

Let’s face it: women see things differently than men do, and most of the “standard” literature read for classes is written by men. In this course, explore the vision of the other half of the world’s Homo sapiens. From authors of the past up to current writers, women of all races and lifestyles have created stories and poems that reveal their common concerns and passions. If you think this means all hearts and flowers, you have a surprise waiting for you!

This class is for both men and women!

ENGL 2341 Literature and Film

What do Kim Basinger, Jack Nicholson, Kevin Spacey, and Cybil Shepherd have in common with Fanny Flag, Ken Kesey, and Larry McMurtry? All of them may have a part in this class, which explores the relationship between literature and film. Novels are often made into films—but why are the movies always so different than the books? Explore the answer to this question with seven novels and seven films. Two thumbs up! See you at the movies!

ENGL 2342 Introduction to Fiction

Who doesn’t enjoy a good story? But what makes a story good reading or listening? Subtle interactions or passionate relationships? Places that seem familiar or ones that are strange and different? Fascinating people with dark secrets or folks we can relate to? Should a story teach us something or just entertain us? Consider these and other questions while sampling a variety of short stories and novels from different times and cultures. And, while doing so, meet characters who will touch you, puzzle you, perhaps frighten or anger you-- and who will become real and alive to you.

ENGL 2336 Introduction to Multicultural Literature

Imagine a meal consisting of nachos, gumbo, sushi, kosher corned beef, German potato salad, turnip greens, and kolaches. A little weird, maybe, but very American. Like our food, our literature reflects Americans’ diverse cultural backgrounds. How do these perspectives and visions differ from each other? How are they similar? Discuss these and other questions as you read the prose and poetry of contemporary American writers.

ENGL 2343 Introduction to Drama

(Note: This course may also be taken as DRAM 1310 Introduction to Theater)

After cave painting, drama may well be mankind's earliest art form. Come and explore the dramatic forms of early Greece, through the literary giants of intervening eras, to the moderns who have brought us a theater of ritualized spiritual and psychological wonderment. Discover how theater does, as Shakespeare put it, "hold the mirror up to nature [and] show virtue her own feature."

ENGL 2307 Creative Writing I

Get in touch with your creativity. Enjoy the freedom to experiment. Discover yourself and your own perceptions through writing. Learn the secrets that professionals use to amaze, amuse and entertain readers. This supportive, stimulating class will help you to express your ideas and feelings in vivid, convincing fiction, non-fiction, and/or poetry.