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A. Building Inference Skill

1. Try to read beyond the words. Fill in details and information based on the writer's suggestions.
2. Question yourself as you read. "Why is Diane hiding the money?" you might have asked as you read. "Why are there clouds and lightning in the sky?" Supply the answers on the basis of the writer's hints and your own experience.
3. If a writer describes a person, try to understand the person from how she moves, what she says, what she looks like. You can infer things about character from the way a person behaves. Try to build a picture of the person in your mind; base your picture on the writer's description of action and appearance.
4. If you find that you cannot easily answer a question about what you have read, remember to use inference skills. Return to the part of the reading where you expect the answer. Then see if the writer suggests something that yourself have to supply in clearer terms.

Practice making inference:

The following is one of Aesop's Fables, but it is presented without the ending, which you will have to figure out by using inference. Read the story and then answer the questions below.

An old lion, who was too weak to hunt or fight for his food, decided that he must get it by his wits. He lay down in a cave, pretending to be ill. Whenever any animals came to visit him, he seized them and ate them. When many had died in this way, a fox happened along. He stood at some distance from the entrance to the lion's den and inquired how the lion was feeling. "Bad", the lion answered, and asked the fox why he would not come inside the cave.

1. How does the fox know that the cave is a dangerous place?
2. Why is the fox sure that the lion will not come out and eat him?
3. What is a suitable moral for this story?
4. How do you suppose this story ends?

B. How to Form Conclusions and Predict Outcomes

1. Be sure you know the main idea of the selection.
2. Be sure you understand all the facts or details that the writer gives to support the idea.
3. Check on difficult vocabulary.
4. Look out for the logic of action. Did you follow the sequence? Did you put events together in the right order of time or place to help you predict what would happen?
5. Look at the way how people are described. Can you tell from their personalities – from the way they think and feel – just how they might act?
6. Ask yourself after you read: what will happen as a result of these actions or events?
7. Be careful to build your conclusion on evidence you find in what you read and not exclusively on your own opinions, likes and dislikes. Of course you need to rely on your own experience to help you figure out how things may happen. But most of your conclusions must be based on what you read in the selection.

Practice drawing conclusions and predicting outcomes:

Read the following selection to see what kind of instruction children may need in order to learn to read. Answer the questions that follow:

A child takes great pleasure in becoming able to read some words. But the excitement fades when the texts the child must read force him to reread the same words endlessly. Word recognition – “decoding” is the term used by educational theorists – deteriorates into empty rote learning when it does not lead directly into the reading of meaningful content. The longer it takes the child to advance from decoding to meaningful reading, the more likely it becomes that his pleasure in books will evaporate. A child’s ability to read depends unquestionably on his learning pertinent skills. But he will not be interested in learning basic reading skills if he thinks he is expected to master them for their own sake. That is why so much depends on what the teacher, the school, and the textbooks emphasize. From the very beginning, the child must be convinced that skills are only a means to achieve a goal, and that the only goal of importance is that he become literate – that is, come to enjoy literature and benefit from what it has to offer.

- Bruno Bettelheim and
Karen Zelan

1. As the writers use it, the word *decoding* means
 - a. figuring out secret languages.
 - b. empty rote learning.
 - c. educational theorists.
 - d. learning to read individual words.
2. From the writers’ point of view we may conclude that a child who reads mainly be rote decoding
 - a. will learn how to read intelligently.
 - b. will never learn how to read.
 - c. will not gain much joy and satisfaction from reading.
 - d. will come to enjoy literature later in life.
3. We may conclude from this selection that, as a skill, decoding
 - a. worthless.
 - b. important only as a part of larger effort to enjoy literature.
 - c. supported by teachers, schools, and textbooks as the most important reading skill.
 - d. still being explored as a new area for teaching reading.
4. If the writers examined a children’s reading text that read” “Run, Jim, run. Run to Tim. Tim and Jim run to Tom” we could predict that they would
 - a. disapprove quite strongly.
 - b. approve enthusiastically.
 - c. have no real opinions one way or the other.
 - d. want teachers and parents to read the text aloud to children.

C. Generalizing

Practice

What kind of authority should a father have in his family? Read the following section and then answer the questions, most of which are based upon your ability to generalize.

In adapting the principle of democratic government to the family we run into some obvious difficulties. The child does not elect his parents and he is not responsible and functioning citizen in the society of his family. His father cannot be guided by the popular will of an electorate or a governing body to whom he is responsible. He cannot be guided by the popular will of his children, either, unless he is prepared to lose his sanity and his life’s savings. If he

is an earnest, democratic father, he may go in for family council and such things, but this is likely to become a hoax in the name of democracy which any five-year-old can spot in a minute.

We need to rescue the American father from the unreasonable and false situation into which we have put him in the name of democracy. We will have no tyrants either, for authority does not mean tyranny. And authority of the kind I speak does not require physical force or the exercise of power for the sake of power. It is a reasonable and just authority (as authority must be in a democratic society) exercised confidently as the prerogative of a father, deriving its strength from the ties of love that bind a parent and child.

- Selma H. Fraiberg

1. Selma Fraiberg believes that fathers
 - a. should not have any authority in the family.
 - b. should set up family councils to act as authorities in the family.
 - c. should base authority on physical force.
 - d. must be figures of authority in the family.
 - e. none of the above.
2. The author probably feels that democracy
 - a. is a failure.
 - b. cannot be applied to all aspects of society.
 - c. is not a concern of fathers.
 - d. is not preferred to tyranny.
 - e. is an unfortunate expression of popular will.
3. We may assume that Fraiberg believes that young children
 - a. need strict parents.
 - b. Should have nothing to say about the governing of a family.
 - c. can easily sense a situation of fraud within the family.
 - d. should be able to elect their own parents.
 - e. all of the above.
4. Put a checkmark next to those statements with which the author probably would agree
 - a. authority does not depend on physical strength.
 - b. the ties of love do not allow the use of authority.
 - c. only responsible, functioning citizens should have the rights of democracy.
 - d. obeying children's will always force parents to become insane.
 - e. problems in adapting principles of democratic government to families may be easily overcome.

D. Evaluating ideas:

1. Fact and opinion

Facts are statement that tells what really happened or really is the case. A fact is based on direct evidence. It is something known actually by experience or observation.

Opinions are statement belief, judgment, or feeling. They show what someone thinks about a subject. Solid opinions, of course, are based on facts. However, opinions are still somebody's view of something and are not facts themselves.

Practice:

- _____ 1. Baseball is the most American of all sports.
- _____ 2. Baseball is based on the British game of rounders.
- _____ 3. More American enjoy baseball than soccer or tennis.
- _____ 4. Japanese professional baseball players are good enough to play in the

- American big leagues.
- _____ 5. Taiwan has won more Little Leagues World Series championships than any other country in recent years.
 - _____ 6. Most big league ball parks use artificial turf.
 - _____ 7. Baseball should be played on natural grass, not an artificial surface.

2. Evidence

Practices:

1. Evidence Backing Up Statements

Before each of the following statements, write *E* if the statement is backed up properly by evidence, write *N* if there is no supporting evidence, and write *I* if there is evidence but it is improperly used.

- _____ 1. Anyone who studies a foreign language in college is just wasting time.
- _____ 2. Since English is the most commonly used language in international business, there is no business advantage to be gained by learning a foreign language.
- _____ 3. Since college courses in computer programming are more popular than language courses, computer programming is far more useful to learn than any other foreign language.
- _____ 4. Oriental languages, like Japanese and Chinese, will be important to learn in the future.
- _____ 5. Since French and German contributed so many words to English, studying these languages will develop your English vocabulary.
- _____ 6. You learn a foreign language best when you have a real need to use it every day.
- _____ 7. The fact that more American students study Latin than Russian, Chinese, and Japanese combined shows that Americans are not preparing themselves to communicate in the modern world.

2. Evidence in Longer Passage

Read the following passages. Think about Paul Wendt's assertion that pictures talk and about the evidence he uses to prove his point. Answer these questions after reading the selection.

Man has been communicating by pictures longer than he has been using words. With the development of photography in this century we are using pictures as a means of communication to such an extent that in some areas they overshadow verbal language. The science of semantics has studied the conveyance of meaning by language in considerable detail. Yet very little is known as to how pictures convey meaning and what their place is in the life of man.

- Paul R. Wendt

- a. What is the main opinion expressed in this passage?
- b. What evidence is given to support his opinion?
- c. State one other opinion expressed in this passage.
- d. What evidence is given to support this other opinion?
- e. How well are the opinions in this passage supported by evidence?

ASPECTS OF CRITICAL THINKING SKILLS

Recognizing Assumptions

Standpoints and expressions of doubt

- Standpoint consists of a proposition that is adopted from a statement or an opinion. For example:
 - a. I think Baudelaire is the best French poet.
 - b. Dictators are always right-wing.
 - c. It is bad manner to let an old lady stand when you are seated.
 - d. I don't think we should cancel our property insurance policy.

- An opinion can be stated with total conviction or it can be cautiously expressed as a suggestion. Thus, standpoints can vary in terms of their degree of force and scope. For example:
 - a. It seems likely that zinc deficiency delays sexual development in some males.
 - b. I assume that even intelligent people occasionally have dumb ideas.

c. There's no doubt that everybody needs somebody

- Sometimes, a standpoint addresses more than one proposition that is related to each other. For example:

It is unacceptable to me for you to go into my room without asking, take books out of my bookshelf, and then lend them to someone else.

- In the case of a positive standpoint, it is sometimes difficult to disentangle the standpoint from the proposition to which it is related. The proposition and the standpoint are combined in a single statement, and the positive nature of the standpoint is often not emphasized. For example:

My standpoint is that it really is true that women are more inclined to hysteria than men are.

- It is often extremely difficult to differentiate between a negative standpoint and an expression of doubt since a negative standpoint can sound very much like doubt. The difference is only on the consequences brought by the two points. For example:

I wonder if that's really such a good idea.

How to recognize standpoints and doubt

- Certain phrases and expressions allow the speaker to indicate explicitly that a standpoint is being advanced:
 - a. *We are of the opinion* that people should be able to smoke in public places.
 - b. *I think that* men and women should leave each other alone as much as possible.
 - c. *I'm convinced that* girls are better students than boys.
- Particular expressions indicate doubt. For example:
 - a. *I don't know* whether Prince Alexander had much respect for his father.
 - b. *I'm not entirely sure* you remembered to turn off the gas.
 - c. *I'm not yet convinced* that this new policy is in the best interests of children raised by single parents.
 - d. *I don't really understand why* those two points of view are irreconcilable.

Explicit and implicit differences of opinion

- A difference of opinion arises when two parties are not fully in agreement on a given standpoint. In oral argumentative discourse, one given standpoint can receive immediate responses. On the other hand, in written texts, the difference of opinion often remains implicit because only one party is expressing its views. For example:

Schools should spend more time teaching writing skills because students these days have a hard time putting their thoughts on paper. Furthermore, our schools spend ridiculously little time on these skills compared to other countries.

Identifying Explicit and Implicit Arguments

Implicit elements in argumentative discourse

- In practice, certain elements of argumentation are often left out. When this does not happen unintentionally and the omitted elements are implicitly present in the argumentation, then they are called unexpressed. Consider the following example:

I wouldn't even consider getting a different job, because in most other jobs I wouldn't be able to bring along my dog, Sherry (unexpressed premise: I have to be able to bring Sherry)

- Standpoints, too, can be unexpressed. In the following argument, the standpoint in brackets is only implicitly present:

The world is full of suffering. If there were a God, there wouldn't be so much suffering. (Therefore, there is no God.)

- Things are often left out of argumentation because they seem obvious. On the other hand, sometimes elements are left unexpressed in order to cover up the weakness of the argument. Take the following example:

It is obvious that children should ideally be raised in a family with both a mother and a father because it has been that way for thousands of years. (Unexpressed premise: Everything that has been done for thousands of years is good.)

Can you define any other feasible unexpressed premise?

Making unexpressed standpoints explicit

- When an argument lacks an explicit standpoint, we have to use the weapon of argumentation or reasoning, i.e. logic. We can analyze whether or the reasoning is valid; the argument to refute or to defend is in line with the advanced standpoint.
- If the standpoint being defended is unexpressed, then the conclusion of this line of reasoning will be missing. Therefore, we should supply the missing standpoint by ourselves. Consider the following example:

The only good museum director is of course one who buys your work. If he doesn't do that, he's a real jerk. Now Mr. Bianchi has never bought anything of mine, so ...

The reasoning of this argument can be reconstructed as follows:

1. If a museum director does not buy my work, then he's a real jerk.
2. Mr. Bianchi has never bought any of my work.

Therefore: 3. Mr Bianchi is a real jerk.

So, by assuming that the speaker does not intend to leave a hole in the logic, "Mr. Bianchi is a real jerk" can be considered to be the unexpressed standpoint.

Making unexpressed premises explicit

- In the argumentation, if one of the premises is missing, it is invalid reasoning. Take a look at the following example:

John likes to yodel, because he comes from Tyrol.

By itself, the statement that John comes from Tyrol does not justify the conclusion that he likes to yodel. The reasoning is only valid if another statement is added to it. The statement can be added by connecting the explicit premise to the standpoint by means of an "if ... then ..." statement. Then, the above argument becomes:

If John comes from Tyrol (the explicit premise), then he likes to yodel (the standpoint).

- The reasoning as a whole has the logically valid form of the type called *modus ponens*:
 1. If p , then q (If John comes from Tyrol, then he likes to yodel.)
 2. p (John comes from Tyrol.)Therefore: 3. q (John likes to yodel.)

Making Interpretations

Understanding figurative language

- To make language more interesting, clearer, and more vivid, writers sometimes use figurative language-language that compares or paints a picture. As you have probably known the meanings of figurative language are not literal. Writers who use figurative language expect you to picture the comparisons they have made so as to enable you to see something more easily. Some examples of figurative language are:

- a. The sun yawned through the trees. (The sun is being compared to a person yawning.)
This figurative language is called personification (nonhuman things are given human features).
- b. The tree bent in the wind like an old man praying. (A tree is compared to an old man at prayer.)
This figurative language is called simile (comparisons using the word *like* or *as*).
- c. His blackberry eyes darted nervously. (The eyes are being compared to blackberries so that you can see the eyes as small and black.)
This figurative language is called metaphor (implied comparisons).
- d. He roared with the force of a thousand lions. (The force of his roar is exaggerated by being compared to the roars of lions.)
This figurative language is called hyperbole (a figurative expression that exaggerates).

Drawing conclusions and predicting outcomes

- Careful and critical readers interpret what they read. Meaning that he tries to explain and to understand ideas and information brought by their reading. To make good interpretations, you have to use information on your own to find out what to expect to read next and to put together facts and details logically in your mind. In so doing, you can make accurate conclusions to strengthen your interpretations. Though paragraphs or larger readings always present information to support a topic, they do not always state all the possible results of the events the writer discusses. Therefore, you must draw your own conclusions and to predict outcomes in longer works. Here are some tips to form conclusions and predict outcomes:
 - a. Be sure you know the main idea of the selection.
 - b. Be sure you understand all the facts or details that the writer gives to support the idea.
 - c. Check on difficult vocabulary.
 - d. Look out for the logic of action.
 - e. Look at the way things are presented or described.
 - f. Ask yourself after you read: what will happen as a result of these actions or events?
 - g. Be careful with your personal judgments. Though you may rely on your own information and experience to make conclusions, most of your conclusions must be based on what you read in the reading selection.

Generalizing

- Another way to make interpretations on what you read and to get meanings from it is to develop skills in generalizing. When you generalize, you extend meanings beyond the specific ideas you read about. You add up facts and details and draw from that particular information some general ideas or principles. So, generalizing leads you to a step beyond

conclusions you can make. It is as if you develop a concept or a rule based on material you have read.

Making Inferences

- Inference is a process by which readers use factual details in what they read as well as their own experience and knowledge on the topic to make conclusions. Thus, in making inferences, readers go beyond surface details and make use of hints or suggestions that may appear to build upon with their own knowledge and experience to have better understanding on the topic they read. Since information is not always stated in exact terms, we must place our own information based on details or ideas suggested by the writer. We can't always be certain that what we have inferred is absolutely right. But if our inferences are based on evidence provided, we can be fairly sure about some things, even if they are only implied.

Evaluating Arguments

Evaluating argumentative discourse

- To assess the soundness of argumentation, all complex argumentation must be broken down into single arguments.
- The evaluation of argumentation should be based on a solid analysis. It means that the soundness of each single argument, which is all advanced in defense of the standpoint, is judged by what it contributes to increasing the acceptability of the standpoint.
- There are two kinds of inconsistencies in argumentative discourse: 1) a logical inconsistency, 2) a pragmatic inconsistency. A logical consistency occurs when statements that are made cannot be true because they contradict each other. A pragmatic inconsistency is when argumentation contains two statements that have contradictory consequences in the real world.

Evaluating ideas

- Effective reading is more than just understanding. You must be able to read in a critical way-which means that you have to evaluate a writer's ideas; you judge the worth of what you read.
- Here are some important questions to ask yourself in evaluating what you read.
 - a. Does the author carefully separate objective fact from opinion?
 - b. Does the passage present the facts completely, specifically, and accurately?
 - c. Does the author seem reliable? Can you see what strengths or experiences make the author qualified to write about a topic?

- d. Does the author make any claims that seem outrageous or unsupportable?
 - e. Does the author make his or her intent or point of view clear?
 - f. Does the author take into account other points of view on the topic?
 - g. Does the author try to appeal more to your emotions or to your reason and common sense?
 - h. Do your emotions get in the way of your ability to judge an author's statements fairly?
 - i. Does it seem that the author is slanting information in such a way as to prejudice your ideas? Is the author using propaganda?
- To make fair arguments and judgments, you must evaluate the author's ideas by considering the borders between facts and opinions, and the use of evidences. To enliven your evaluation, you can also take a look at the writer's technique (style, tone, mood, purpose, and point of view).

- **Fact and opinion**

- Most readings support ideas in accordance with fact and opinion. For sure, it is not easy to keep them apart. We must be really careful when identifying where fact ends and opinion begins.
- Facts are statements that report what really happened or really is the case. A fact tells us direct evidence. It is something known by actual experience or observation.
- Opinions are statements of belief, judgment, or feeling. They reflect what someone thinks and believes about one particular point. One opinion can be said solid and valid if it is obviously supported by facts or evidences. However, opinions are still somebody's point of view of something and are not facts themselves.
- Consider the following examples:
 - a. In 1945 the Republic of Indonesia won its fighting for independence.
 - b. In 2006, there were probably 1000 beggars and homeless people living in Jakarta.
 - c. Now, in an age without heroes, the Indian leaders are perhaps the most heroic of all Americans.

Of the three examples above, distinguish between the fact and opinions and explain your reasons.

- Often writers mix fact and opinion even within the same sentence, with some words representing facts and others representing opinions. Think about the following example:

Compact discs reproduce truer sound than records. They cannot skip or scratch the way records do. Despite this, there will always be a market for record players because people don't like to change things they're used to for new gadgets they can't understand.

Analyze the sentences and identify which sentences represent facts and which ones indicate opinions. Explain your reasons.

- When you have a mixture of fact and opinion in a single statement, you must decide whether the main point of the statement is essentially fact or opinion. Consider the following example:

Dressed in a beautiful ten thousand dollar dress, Mary Foley looked elegant and serene on her wedding day as she marched down the aisle beside her father. She said, "I must be the happiest woman alive."

Even though the words *beautiful, elegant, and serene* state the writer's opinion, the sentence states many facts.

- Here are some steps you can do to keep fact and opinion apart:
 - a. Look for words that interpret.
 - b. Look for words that serve as clues to statements of opinion. Some words like *probably, perhaps, usually, often, sometimes, on occasion*, and some expressions like *I believe, I think, in my opinion, I feel, I suggest* are used to limit a statement of fact and to indicate the possibility of other opinions.
 - c. Before you accept a statement of fact and before you agree with a statement of opinion, question the skill of the author. Is he or she reliable? Why should you take his or her word?
 - d. Test the writer's opinion by asking whether a different opinion is possible. You do not have to agree with the different opinion. You just have to be able to see if there is another point of view.

- **Evidence**

- Sometimes, writers write their opinions without being supported by supporting evidence. In such cases, you do not have to believe the presented opinions. But, when writers do support their opinions with evidence, you must evaluate whether their evidence is valid, reliable, and trustworthy. Here are some questions to guide you to evaluate any evidence offered to support opinions expressed in your reading:
 - a. Can the facts be trusted?
 - b. Are the facts given in an objective way?
 - c. Do the facts really support the opinion being expressed?
 - d. Are the facts relevant to the point being made?
 - e. Have unfavorable or negative points been left out?
 - f. Do the facts prove the writer's opinion, or do they only suggest that the opinion is reasonable?

Fallacies

- Fallacies have been widely known in the study of argumentation since its emergence in Aristotle's systematic study of fallacies has been discovered. The emergence of the study of fallacies departed from the need of coming to critical rationality in the argumentative discourse without neglecting feasible unsound moves that are possibly committed by the interlocutors involved to lead the outcome of the discussion on their own favor. That is why the study of fallacies, that was initiated by the Aristotelian heritage, is aimed at describing and classifying forms of argumentation that are regarded as incorrect or unsound, and to explicate why they are recognized so.
- Some proponents of argumentation study defined fallacy as follows:

"A fallacious argument, as almost every account from Aristotle onwards tells you, is one that seems valid but is not so." (Hamblin, 1970: 12)

"A fallacy is defined as an argument that not only does not contribute to the goal of a dialogue but actually blocks or impedes the realization of that purpose. A fallacy is defined as a purported argument that goes counter to the direction of the talk exchange and poses a serious danger to blocking it." (Walton, 1995: 255)

- The following are some examples of fallacies:

1. *Ad Hominem*

- a. Abusive Ad Hominem: a direct attack on a person's character rather than focusing on his or her arguments.

Example: There is no way that Louis Althusser can provide a believable Structuralist Marxist philosophy; look at the guy, he strangled his wife to death.

- b. Circumstantial Ad Hominem: opposing speaker is accused of having interests.

Example: Of course he is against raising cigarette taxes, he smokes eight packs a day.

- c. Tu Quoque: indicating that the opposing side made the same error; often times referred to as "you did it too!"

Example: Yeah, I cheated on my exam, but you did it too when you were a kid.

2. *Ad Baculum (Appeal to Force)*

Someone in a position of authority supports their claim by threatening the audience with undesirable consequences, which may be either ideological or brute force, if the audience does not accept the claim.

Example: My dad is involved with education too and he is very powerful, if you want your teaching job, you will give me an 'A' in this class.

3. *Ad Populum (Appeal to the People/ Fallacy of Mob Appeal)*

This fallacy is "an argument in which an appeal is made to emotions, especially to powerful feelings that can sway people in large crowds" (Engel, 1982: 173). This fallacy commonly uses emotional language, and expressions that are irrelevant to the argument at hand.

Example: Show your American pride and eat beef.

4. Ad Misericordiam (Appeal to Pity)

An argument that addresses sense of mercy; an argument that wins the reader's acceptance by mere pity.

Example: Please excuse my class absence because I got sun poisoning from a tanning bed. I really love your class, it's just that my body is raw and my face is totally blistered.

5. Ad Ignorantiam

An argument is true because no evidence disproves its validity.

Example: Mom hasn't disproved that a monster hides under my bed at night, so I know it must be there.

6. Ad Verecundiam

Walton (1995: 46) defines this fallacy as an appeal to reverence (respect) and it refers to the fallacy of inappropriate use of appeals to expert opinion in argumentation. On the other hand, John Locke gave this fallacy its latin name "argument addressed to sense of modesty"; using someone such a celebrity to support the claim under issue.

Example: My elementary science school teacher said that spiders are insects; therefore spiders are insects.

7. Many Questions (Fallacy of Complex Question/ Fallacy of the False Question)

This fallacy is a kind of tricky question being asked to the respondent who is not actually committed to the presupposition contained in the question.

Example: How long did it take you to come up with that excuse for being absent?

8. Begging the Question (Petitio Principii)

Premises that are passed on as being valid without supporting evidence.

Example: Lazy English majors and stupid Liberal Arts Majors make up 30% of the student population. (Unproven premises: English majors are lazy and Liberal Arts Majors are stupid.)

9. Hasty Generalization

Drawing conclusions from too little of evidence and often relying on stereotypes.

Example: I have known several eccentric artists and they all suffer from manic depression. All artists must be crazy.

10. Slippery Slope

This fallacy is called bad precedent; assuming that a proposed step will set off an uncontrollable chain of undesirable events.

Example: If you don't stop smoking cigarettes, then you are going to start shooting heroin.

11. False Cause (Post Hoc Ergo Propter Hoc)

It is also termed "coincidental correlation", in Latin "after this, therefore, because of this." This fallacy is an error in causal relationships; "the error of concluding that an event is caused by another simply because it follows that other" (Copi and Cohen, 1990: 101, in Walton, 1995: 56).

Example: Ryan seems depressed and wears a black beret since he has been in Poetry; that course must be having a bad effect on him.

12. Ad Consequentiam

This is an error of reasoning in which a proposition is false (true) on the grounds that the proposition would have bad (good) consequences.

Example: Vegetarianism is an injurious and unhealthy practice. For if all people were vegetarians, the economy would be seriously affected, and many people would be thrown out of work. (Walton, 1995: 58)

13. Faulty Analogy

It is an ambiguous comparison with more dissimilarities than similarities that are not acknowledged or even clearly explained.

Example: Smoking cigarettes is just like ingesting arsenic into your system. Both have been shown to be causally related to death. So, if you wouldn't want to take a spoonful of arsenic, I would think that you wouldn't want to continue smoking. (Walton, 1995: 60)

14. Ignoratio Elenchi (Irrelevant Conclusion)

It occurs when a conclusion does not necessarily follow from the premises upon which it is based.

Example: This is the best artichoke dip I have ever tasted and it should be an award-winning recipe.

