SYLLABUS FOR ENGLISH 306

1976-1977

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INTRODUCTION: THE PROGRAM, AN OVERVIEW

The basic purpose of English 306 is to enable the student to achieve a minimum standard of effectiveness in writing expository themes. A fair number of skills are involved in such an achievement and this course is organized in such a way as to isolate the most important of these basic skills in both study and practice.

Isolating the basic skills for study and practice is consistent both with modern research findings in the teaching of composition and with the general procedure in intellectual activities. The physicist isolates gravity and his formulae ignore air resistance, shape of the dropping body, etc.; the musician isolates rhythm, melody, embouchure, etc., for special attention in his practices. In the real situation, gravity may be only one of several forces which must be considered in making a given decision, but the establishment of the formula in a vacuum, as it were, has prepared for the real situation.

Similarly, the effective writing of espository composition embodies certain basic skills. The skills are the subject of the ten units of the course. Generally the simpler skills come first and the more complex skills are taken up in the latter part of the course. The compositions in each unit thus focus on one of the basic skills.

Accompanying the composition exercises are three means to the dominant end; the three means are the rhetorical theory, the model readings, and the handbook exercises.

The rhetorical theory is partly traditional and partly modern and is drawn from several "schools" of rhetoric. It is not, for example, solely based on Aristotelian rhetoric (indeed only the analysis of propaganda and persuasion in Unit III draws heavily from Aristotle). The textbooks chosen represent different rhetorical orientations, though they have many important components in common.

The readings represent an attempt to see the rhetorical theory put into practice in a typical sample of writing emphasizing the skill in question. The syllabus frequently attempts to focus very carefully on the relation between the rhetorical theory and the readings. The specific relation between organizational patterns for the whole theme and the particular skill in question is also pointed out in the syllabus.

The handbook exercises represent a new emphasis in the syllabus this year. The Freshman English Policy Committee, because of several separate motivations, feels that more stress needs to be given mechanics. The subcommittee on evaluation's findings, based on corrections of 250 essays randomly chosen from 25 classes and from an objective test given to the same classes before and after the course, support this need. The findings of Mr. Sledd in a questionnaire distributed to 1400 students and faculty in the University also support this contention. Finally, the findings in the English Composition Test and in the Scholastic Aptitude Test-Verbal and other tests indicate the same deficiency. For example, only 30% of our entering students now exempt English 306--contrast this to the 49% who exempted it some seven years ago, based on the same test, the English Composition Test, which is fundamentally a test in mechanics.

Consequently, in order to insure at least minimal coverage of the major problems, the Freshman Committee adopted the Harbrace College Handbook, making it obligatory for all freshman classes. Secondly, the major problems are systematically parceled out among the ten units.

It is expected that all of these major areas will be covered at some time during the course, so that by the end of the course the student can write prose which is at least free of these major errors. It is suggested that as one moves through the course and covers, for example, fragments and unnecessary punctuation in Unit I, the teacher will subsequently mark faults in these areas much more rigorously than others.

Class coverage of these items can vary, depending upon the preparation of the class. The Harbrace College Handbook is also written to be used individually by the student on a referral basis. And, of course, some students can not wait till the class coverage of items particularly relevant to their own compositions.

If the compositions, the rhetorical theory, the readings, and the handbook exercises are covered adequately, the student who passes the course ought to possess the following skills: 1) he should be able to compile information on a given topic and make an intelligent comprehensive and accurate report on it; 2) with some degree of adequacy he should be able to recognize valid and invalid inductive generalizations in his own and others' writings; 3) he should be able to recognize the premises used by himself and others in deductive procedures; also be able to argue deductively from premises acceptable to his audience in his own writings; 4) he should be able to explore a new topic and recognize responsible hypotheses from those which are untestable and which do not really explain; 5) he should have some knowledge of the different types of explanation. The preceding skills are sometimes called the aims in expository writing. Just as necessary are certain fundamental skills in: classification and definition, description, narration, and evaluation. These are often called the modes. They are the different ways one looks at subject matter.

A glance at the compositions called for, the rhetorical theory covered, and the readings will reveal that these aims and modes constitute the core of the course.

TEXTBOOKS

English 306 (not Mexican-American sections or Extension School)

Required: Hodges-Whitten, Harbrace College Handbook, 7th edition

Alternate rhetorics (experienced teachers will make their choice of one text from this list; new teachers must use the designated text):

Hairston, A Contemporary Rhetoric (to be used by all new teachers)
Tibbetts and Tibbetts, Strategies of Rhetoric, revised edition
Winterowd, The Contemporary Writer

Experimental rhetorics (to be used only by specially-designated teachers):

Crews, The Random House Handbook
Irmscher, The Holt Guide to English, revised edition
Perrin and Ebbitt, Writer's Guide and Index to English

Alternate readers (experienced teachers will make their choice of one text from this list; new teachers must use the designated text):

Clayes and Spencer, Contexts for Composition, 4th edition (to be used by all new teachers)

Burt and Want, Invention and Design

Experimental readers (to be used only by specially-designated teachers):

Bain and Donovan, The Writer and the Worlds of Words
Eastman, et al., The Norton Reader, shorter edition
Schorer, et al., Harbrace College Reader

Texts for English 306 classes--Mexican-American sections

Tibbetts and Tibbetts, Strategies of Rhetoric, revised edition
Hodges-Whitten, Harbrace College Handbook, 7th edition
Clayes and Spencer, Contexts for Composition, 4th edition
Dwyer, ed., Chicano Voices

Texts for English 306 classes--Extension School

Hodges-Whitten, Harbrace College Handbook, 7th edition
Hairston, A Contemporary Rhetoric
Decker, Patterns of Exposition, 5th edition

UNIT I: THE USES OF LANGUAGE--AN EXERCISE IN CLASSIFICATION

I. OBJECTIVES

1. To introduce students to the processes of classification and definition in order to use them in a theme. To do a competent job on this theme, at least two basic specialized skills are needed:

a. The ability to recognize and use at least the following types of definition: logical (genus and species), example, descriptive, operational.

b. The ability to use the "principle of division" in establishing subordinate categories.

2. To recognize that expository writing is different in some important ways from advertising and propaganda, from some literary uses of language, and from some types of emotional self-expression in writing.

II. MATERIALS

Texts

Hairston. 146-155 (Definition), 160-163 (Comparison), 33-54 (The Components of Rhetoric).
Tibbetts and Tibbetts. 42-51 (Definition), 66-71 (Classification), 71-73 (Comparison-Contrast).
Winterowd. 2-18 (The Writer's Stance), 98-105 (includes description and narration also). 1-3 (The Uses of Writing).

Readings

Burt. Copland. "How We Listen to Music," 159-165. Burt, 41-46, 81 through 171, has many other examples of definition, classification, and comparison-contrast.

Clayes. Jacoby, "The Environmental Crisis," 79-87, is an interesting example of a classification of causes. Actually, 2 through 89 have to do with classification, definition, and comparison-contrast. Booth. "The Rhetorical Stance," 167-176.

Background readings. An exceptionally good logic book on definitions and classification is Leonard, Principles of Right Reason. Kinneavy, Cope, and Campbell, Writing--Basic Modes of Discourse, chapter on "Classification," treats the material of this unit in a more extended fashion; this book is not a freshman text--rather it is an upper division composition book. For readings on the aims of language, see Kinneavy, A Theory of Discourse, Ch. II.

Harbrace College Handbook. Section 2 (Fragments). Section 9f (unnecessary capitals), Section 13 (superfluous commas).

III. SUGGESTIONS AND THEMES

Since this is the first unit in the course, and since this course has to do with expository writing, it seems natural to introduce students to the course by distinguishing expository writing from other types of writing. This will enable the student to orient himself to the kind of writing done in expository papers and to avoid some common faults that come with attempting to write self-expressive or emotional papers, or overt propaganda, or even informal "literary" essays when exposition is called for.

Such distinctions call for classification and, implicitly at least, definition. Consequently, an appropriate composition would be one which focused on different functions of language and attempted to differentiate among them. This is the suggested theme and it can take many different forms.

An inductive way of approaching the theme is to ask each student to bring to class a list of different examples of uses of language. To give the sampling some unity, it has been found useful to require everyone to bring a copy of The Daily Texan to class. From The Daily Texan, for example, students will come up with news stories, sports stories, editorials, letters to the editor, ads, movie ads, classified ads, comics, features, columns, etc. And if the

students are asked to look at other media, the list of specific uses can become very enlarged.

Then ask the students to classify the lists. Almost inevitably the students will arrive at quite different initial categories. Some might classify by type of audience envisaged, some by medium used (book, billboard, newspaper, etc.), some by art used (speaking, writing), etc. The diversity is useful because it enables the teacher to point out the important concept of the "principle of division," one of the three basic objectives of the unit.

The readings illustrate the principle very well. Jacoby's essay on "The Environmental Crisis" obviously classifies and defines throughout the entire essay. But the sections of the essay are not all determined by the same principle of division. The essay's basic structure betrays three quite different principles of division. A quick outline of the essay shows these principles quite graphically.

Outline of Jacoby's "The Environmental Crisis"

I. Introduction.

1. Limitation of "environment" to "urban physical environment" and reason for this limitation, paragraphs 1-6.

II. [Causes: Forces Bringing About Deterioration]

A. Population concentration, paragraph 7.
B. Rising affluence, paragraphs 8-11.
C. Technical changes, paragraph 12.

III. [Effects:] Aspects of Environmental Deterioration

A. [General (also somewhat, though not totally, neutral).]

1. Disappearance of free goods, paragraph 13.
2. Changing spatial relationships, paragraph 14.
3. Multiplication of interdependencies, paragraph 15.

B. [Specific (and more obviously harmful)]

1. "Spillover" effects, paragraph 16.
2. Amenities below tolerance thresholds, paragraphs 17, 18.
3. Inequity among social groups, paragraph 19.

IV. Suggested Solutions.

A. Inadequate and partial.

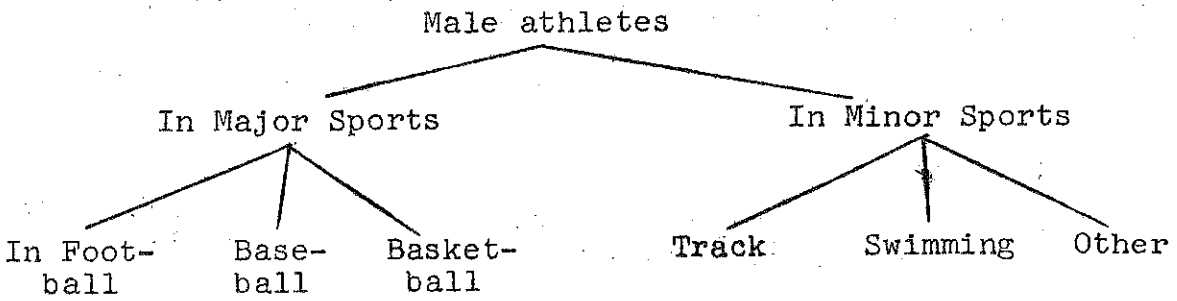
1. Doomsday, paragraph 21.
2. Minimalist, paragraph 22.
3. Socialist, paragraph 23.
4. Zero growth, paragraphs 24-27.
5. Austerity, paragraphs 28-29.
6. Public priorities, paragraphs 30-31.

B. Adequate.

1. Jacoby's solution, paragraphs 32-34.

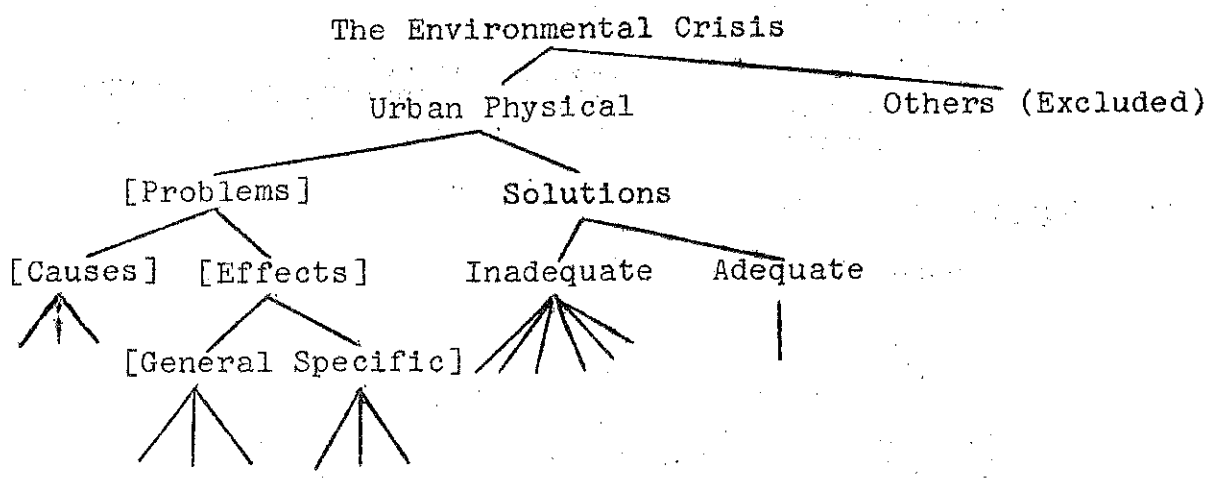
After the first six introductory paragraphs, it is evident that there are many divisions, but they are not haphazardly grouped. The first three (under II) are the subcategories of the causes; the next six are subcategories of the effects; and the last seven (under IV) are the subcategories of the solutions. The last two sets of categories are subdivided into obvious other principles of division (general vs. specific and inadequate vs adequate). The brackets indicate wordings added by me.

Classifications of other topics might then be attempted. For example, "Male athletes" might be divided as follows:



The principle of division throughout the whole schema is "Sports in which the athlete is engaged." And the subcategories are also obviously governed by clear principles of division. Other principles of division of "Male athletes" are possible: whether paid or not--amateur, professional; ethnic roots--Black, Chicano, Caucasian, others; etc.

But a division of male athletes into Black, Pro, and Football has no common principle of division and results in overlap and incomplete coverage of the subclasses. Notice, however, and that at different levels in subclasses, different principles operate. In the Jacoby article, for instance, the principles of division might be illustrated as follows:



The lowest levels of the tree (logicians' trees are upside down) are not listed here; but the outline on the preceding page can fill in the terminal strings. Except for the "Inadequate solutions" section of the essay there are no further carefully worked principles of division at the bottom of the tree.

The "Principle of division" (or classification) is not explicitly covered in either Hairston or Winterowd, but it is well handled in Tibbetts (pp. 67-69), who calls it the "ruling principle."

The tree presentation of the structure of the Jacoby essay is another graphic manner of presenting the outline form presented above.

Applied to uses of language, the teacher might elicit several different principles of division for the suggested term paper.

It is evident, both in the uses of language and in the Jacoby article that classifications presuppose, at least implicitly, definitions. The suggested theme, therefore, can go into some detail with the definitions which justify the suggested classifications. It is clear that Jacoby has given quite a few explicit definitions of his categories, especially in the "Inadequate Solutions" section.

The students could analyze these definitions in the light of the kinds of definition given by Hairston and Tibbetts. Most of them are logical (genus and species), for example, or descriptive (naming of parts), or operational. Students should be encouraged to use all of these types in their classificatory paper. Sometimes in emphasizing the logical definition, teachers tend to de-emphasize the definition by example (which is probably psychologically the fundamental type). The texts cover definition fairly well.

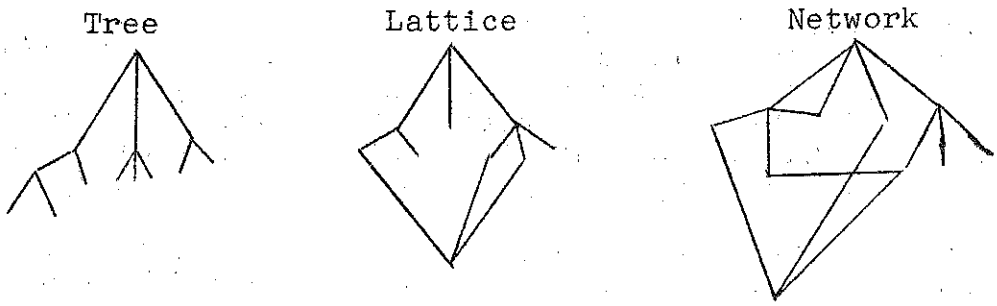
The classification-definition theme. With all of the rhetoric and reading analysis, the student should be ready for his first major theme, an exercise in classification or definition or both.

One topic which would come as a logical extension of the class discussions would seem to be a paper classifying the uses of language. If the student finds it hard to locate workable "principles of division," the teacher might suggest such notions as: faculty appealed to (which kinds of discourse appeal to the intellect, to the emotions, to the bodily sense of rhythm, etc.); types of audience; emphasis of the element of the communication triangle (which kinds of discourse emphasize speaker, which audience, which subject matter, which language in a noticeable way), style (Do some kinds of writing seem more "connotative" than others?); genres; level of probability (Do some kinds of writing seem more "certain" or "true" than others?); etc.

Variants of this large topic can result from the restriction of the study to one medium. One student might take a copy of TV Guide and try to classify the various aims of the different kinds of programs. Another might take several copies of The Daily Texan (or any other newspaper) and attempt to classify the various articles or use of space.

Other students may well want to classify quite different kinds of subjects. Students have had good luck with the following topics: comics, television shows, freshman interests, fishing lures, racing automobiles, teachers, dates, etc.

The typical organizational pattern of the classification paper is the tree structure which we have seen examplified in the Jacoby essay. An excellent example of a tree structure which develops into a lattice structure (two trees whose branches meet) can be seen in Copland's essay "How We Listen," in the Burt anthology. For an analysis of this essay, see Kinneavy, Cope, and Campbell, Writing--Basic Modes of Organization, pp. 66, 75, and especially p. 76. A second common variation of tree structure, most frequently seen in the comparison-contrast theme, is the network, a structure in which there are lateral movements back and forth among coordinate groups. The three basic structures can be represented as follows:



UNIT II: SELF-EXPRESSION--KEEPING A JOURNAL

I. OBJECTIVES

1. To get the student to engage willingly in the act of writing to express feelings, desires, aspirations, dislikes, hates, projects, etc. This is a terminal objective: it is psychologically necessary for a person to be able to use language (of some sort, though not necessarily verbal) to find oneself and to articulate through utterances the basic aspirations which would not otherwise achieve reality. The utterance confirms the aspiration, half reifies it, and makes it so much easier to achieve complete reification.

In our culture, especially our WASP culture, self-expression (which often will be emotional) is often frowned on--with some awkward results. One result of not allowing people normal emotional outlets is that they find some abnormal (harmful to self) outlets and so inhibit themselves that psychological harm follows. College, it might be pointed out, may be the first real chance some students will have really to express themselves in writing. In this sense, it may be their first self-discovery in language. Freshman English can be a rite of passage--in the strictest anthropological sense of the term, the experience of arriving at maturity.

2. To get the student to use free writing to attain scribal fluency--the willingness to write, as well as speak, to achieve some of his communication objectives. This is often a by-product

of self-expressive writing or of free writing. Ken Macrorie, Peter Elbow, Lou Kelly, James Miller and others emphasize this important by-product of expressive writing. For some, there is no other road to learning how to write. This is a secondary objective of expressive writing, but for the purposes of this course a very important one.

3. To allow the student to get to know the teacher and to allow the teacher to get to know the student. If the teacher really allows the student to express her/himself, the channels between teacher and student can suddenly be opened and the most enriching educational experiences can follow. Although this is not the main objective of the module, it could, on occasion, by the most important.

II. MATERIALS

Texts

Winterowd, 3-28.
Hairston, must be supplemented by other materials.
Tibbetts, 38-42, Smith, "I Am the New Black," 204-205.

Readings (There may be better examples for your purposes.)

Burt, Catton. "The Thin Ice," 139-144. esp. Elbow, "Free-writing."
Clayes. Didion, "On Keeping a Notebook," 112-118; Baldwin, "Notes of a Native Son," 215-231.

Handbook. Section 19, "Good Use--Glossary!" and Section 3, "Comma Splice and Fused Sentence."

In introducing the student to self-expression and just after having him analyze different uses of language, it is an opportune time to call the student's attention to the differences between different levels of formality in writing and speaking and the conventional rules that obtain in different situations. The Harbrace College Handbook is representative of the conventional rules that govern edited standard written English, whereas self-expression, advertising, much propaganda and other kinds of writing (generally those of the Harbrace College Handbook) are not at all those of his journal nor of some of the writing in our modern world, but they do hold in his themes for this and most courses.

For the classic treatment of levels of formality in writing and other dialectal dimensions of written and spoken English, see Martin Joos, The Five Clocks.

Resource Materials

1. Audiotape--a Black teacher from Bishop College reads Smith's "I Am the New Black," available in the Freshman English Office.
2. Some of the poems in the Department collection or the Academic Center Library are good audio examples of expressive writing.

3. Other readings: Ken Macrorie, Uptaught, Writing to Be Read, Telling Writing, etc., is the main proponent of the pedagogical use of freewriting. Peter Elbow, Writing Without Teachers, is also an important figure in this area. So are Lou Kelly and James Miller. They are available in the Learning Resources Center of the new Education Building (EDB 436) and in the Writing Resource Center (Academic Center 301.11).
4. For a fuller treatment and a philosophical foundation for expressive discourse, see Kinneavy, A Theory of Discourse, Ch. VI, esp. 398-409; Kinneavy, Cope, and Campbell, Aims and Audiences in Writing, Ch. VII.
5. THE MAIN RESOURCE FOR EXPRESSIVE WRITING IS THE STUDENT AND HIS PERSONAL EXPERIENCE.

Suggestions for Teaching

1. Winterowd's chapter on "The Uses of Writing: Self-Expression," pp. 3-28, is filled with suggestions for the interior monologue, the personal letter, the journal, and the autobiography (see below, number 7).
2. Other genres some have found useful: Pensees (random thoughts, in the tradition of Pascal); reactions to movies or music or paintings or literature (not critiques or analyses, but personal reactions), pure freewriting, group manifestoes, individual or group creeds, prayer, character sketches of friends or loved ones, descriptions about favorite or hated places, narratives about critical incidents in one's life, poetry, song (with or without musical accompaniment), etc.
3. Grading expressive papers. In a very real sense only the writer can grade this kind of paper: only he knows whether the paper really is an attempt at self-expression or a facade. For this reason many teachers do not grade expressive writing--they only react to it as a non-directive counselor does to a client (That's interesting, yes, Hmmmm.....).

Others grade expressive papers, using very general norms. Thus if it is a narrative, and the narrative line is not clear, this can be pointed out, etc. Others grade only the mechanics of the paper. However, even mechanics--of some kinds anyway--are often treated differently in this sort of aim. Obviously, if a person is writing to himself, fragmentary sentences, idiolectal expressions, slang, often obscenity, nonparagraphing, etc. can all be effective self-expression. Consequently the syntax, the diction, and the discourse structures of standard written English, which will be required in the subsequent expository papers, are not necessarily relevant in freewriting.

However, if a person writes a journal, it is not too much to expect, that for display to the teacher, it be rewritten in a manner that permits rereading (proper spelling, minimal mechanics, etc.).

4. Some teachers use expressive writing only at the beginning of a course. Others find it useful occasionally throughout the course.
5. Although self-expression and literary value often overlap, they are not at all necessarily the same thing. Thus there may be valid examples of self-expression which by the norms of literary criticism may seem trite, cliched, sentimental, banal, lacking in logic, etc. Also self-expression (of individuals or

of groups) must allow for ultimate pluralism--another person's values may not at all be those of the teacher. Indeed, real self-expression nearly always involves an element of the repudiation of past norms and thus encourages rebellion. Consequently the teacher must not be surprised to see his students' self-expressions reflecting quite different value hierarchies from his own.

6. Methodology. The methodology suggested in the previous unit, i.e., inductive analysis of examples to arrive at some principles, may not be feasible in teaching self-expression. Instead, two other techniques are most frequently used: (1) immediate freewriting without any stimulation and particularly without any preparatory reading or analysis at all (Macrorie, Elbow, and Kelly suggest this). (2) reading something or discussing something to serve as a stimulus--Miller uses this technique in his book and Macrorie sometimes uses it.

Sometimes, however, some reticent students might be helped by reading of other examples of self-expression with some analysis (see Burt and Winterowd and Kinneavy, Cope and Campbell, references given above).

7. The Journal. The journal kept throughout the entire semester, rather than just a paper at the beginning of the semester, is the most popular kind of expressive writing used in many college classes. Have the students write in their journals every day for ten minutes or every other day for a somewhat longer time. Collect the journals at regular intervals and react to them. Grading them is not recommended. Encourage free self-expression in the journals. Do not downgrade for mechanics or even for content--see suggestions on grading above. The theme book in which the student writes a journal can also be the place where he keeps a record of his spelling errors and his recurring mechanical errors.

UNIT III: WRITING A PAPER ON TECHNIQUES OF PERSUASION AND PROPAGANDA

I. OBJECTIVES

1. The student should be able to analyze in propaganda and other persuasion the ethical, pathetic, logical, and stylistic arguments.

2. The student should be able to write a theme in which he analyzes one or several of the persuasive arguments used by a given writer in a persuasive essay. This is like a literary analysis, except that the focus is on persuasive rather than literary techniques.

II. MATERIALS

Texts. Hairston. 36-45 (already covered in Unit K, the three appeals), "Exploring the Persuasive Power of Words," 95-145; "Propaganda," 235-241.
Tibbetts. "Writing a Persuasive Argument," 204-237.
Winterowd. "The Uses of Writing: Persuasion," 252-288.

Readings. Burt. Roiphe, "Confessions of a Female Chauvinist Sow," 243-249; Solzhenitsyn, "Once Pledged to the Word," 255-263.
Clayes. Bernays, "What are You Supposed to Do if You Like Children?" 344-350.

Handbook. "Agreement," Section 6. Subject-verb and pronoun-antecedent agreement.

Other resources. In the Freshman English Office there are several sets of slides of ads, billboards, posters, etc.; there is a videotape (in color) of television ads; there are some audiotapes of ads and political speeches, including Roosevelt's Inaugural Address; there are quite a few political speeches from such noteworthies as Churchill, Teddy Kennedy, and even Chancellor LeMaistre. The full list of the written speeches available is sent out from the Freshman English Office the first week of the semester. Janis Mather, the secretary, must be advised within the first three weeks of school if she is to be asked to run one of these speeches off for your entire class.

Finally, this fall we are going to try to obtain some rented videotapes of current speeches in the election campaign. If you see something you especially would like to use and feel others might profitably use, let the Freshman English Office know and we will try to get it (anything that occurs during prime time on any of the three major networks is available).

To correct the impressions of a person who thinks that "persuasion" in the classical sense refers to all writing, the required reading has to be Aristotle's Rhetoric, especially Chapters I, II, of the First Book (on the nature and kinds of rhetoric), Chapter II (pathetic argument, one emotion), XVII, XIX, XX (on the "logic" of persuasion as opposed to that of science or dialectic), of the Second Book.

For a criticism of Aristotle and a view of some of his limitations, see Edwin Black, Rhetorical Criticism. For a view of how the Aristotelian structure may be adapted to modern propaganda and advertising, see Kinneavy, A Theory of Discourse, Chapter IV.

III. SUGGESTIONS FOR TEACHING

Content. Winterowd has chapters on the various uses of writing and distinguishes self-expression, expository writing, writing about literature, research writing, and imaginative writing from persuasion. Hairston also distinguishes "factual writing" from "rhetorica writing" and both of them from literature; though there is no concern for self-expression in her text, there is no reason to believe that she would subsume it into "rhetoric." Tibbetts is somewhat more diffuse on this issue. It is true that he has a chapter on "Writing a Persuasive Argument," and that he begins it with the ethical argument and then the pathetic argument (which he calls the pleasant "you-attitude.") but both are weak versions of the rhetorical tradition.

What has to be made clear to the students in the study of this unit is that "Persuasion" has a technical meaning, narrower than it has in ordinary language. Obviously there is persuasion of some sort in nearly all uses of writing, whether expository or literary or even some types of self-expression. In one sense, it can be sai

that persuasion is involved in all uses of writing. If one uses the word persuasion in this large sense, then one must distinguish among the various kinds of persuasion that are achieved in scientific as opposed to literary as opposed to propaganda types of writing. It is this last which is called persuasion in the context of this syllabus.

It is possibly best defined ostensively by such examples as advertising, typical political speeches, most sermons, etc. It is characterized by the strong intrusion of the speaker's own character as an argument; by the strong intrusion of an appeal to the interests and emotions of the audience; by overt stylistic devices such as rhythm, alliteration, strong imagery patterns, all marshalled to convince; and by the use of what seems to be logical but is quite frequently only a facade of evidence.

This last argument, often traditionally called the "logical" argument, calls for special attention because some of the texts fail to distinguish between the kind of logic used in persuasion and the kind of logic used in scientific and expository prose. Aristotle made it quite clear that the logic of rhetoric (his name for the study of persuasion in this narrow sense) was fundamentally different from the logic of science or even from the logic of exploration--to each of which he devoted books in other parts of his canon. Example, as used in persuasion is not valid induction; and enthymeme, used to draw conclusions from premises in persuasion, is not valid deduction. If the teacher needs evidence of these critical distinctions, he might consult Kinneavy, A Theory of Discourse, pp. 245ff. Perhaps the first paragraph of this treatment might be useful:

> The third fundamental technique of inducing belief is usually called the "logical" argument. The term is unfortunate because it suggests that rational logic is here in question, whereas, as has been demonstrated above (see above, p. 220), the logic of rhetoric is only seemingly rational. Aristotle never pretended that any of his three main kinds of rhetorical logic (topics, enthymemes, or examples) were really logical. Indeed, all of the chapters on the "logical" argument (Chapters 18 through 26) are a scathing denunciation of the seeming rationality, but ultimate irrationality of man as a persuadable being. In the discussion of topics, for example, Aristotle almost invariably points out that a given topic can prove a point or its opposite (1397a 7ff.; cf. Cope, i, 129; Cope, r, II, 238). The reader is reminded again and again of the differences among the scientific, the dialectical, and the rhetorical syllogisms (enthymemes). It is difficult to see how anyone who reads Chapters 18 through 26, even casually, can ever emerge with the notion that Aristotle viewed persuadable man, the populace (idiotai), as really rational. The point of the whole section is that man only thinks he is rational. He is persuaded by the appearance of rationality.

If the teacher realizes these basic differences--and occasionally makes some corrections to the treatment of induction and deduction in some of the texts--and gets the students to see the

differences, then most of the treatments of the texts can be found very useful.

In discussing and teaching persuasion, the issue of the ethics of persuasion almost invariably comes up. Some suggested readings in this area for the teacher (and the student, in some cases): Johanssen, Ethics and Persuasion: Selected Readings; Weaver, The Ethics of Rhetoric (especially the first chapter): for some other references, see Kinneavy, A Theory of Discourse, pp. 221ff (the indicated sources).

Methodology. One device of teaching persuasion which has proven effective with teachers in the past is the method of having the students discover the techniques of persuasion by generalizing from instances which they themselves explore. Then they apply their generalizations to the essay to be analyzed. This is a combination inductive-deductive method.

The students are first asked to look carefully at different examples of persuasion--ads, billboards, posters, political speeches, sermons, etc. The persuasion slides in the Freshman English Office are excellent for this purpose. Students can also bring in their own examples.

As each example is examined, a list of the techniques which seem to be persuasive is listed on the board. This may take several days. Any suggestion should be entered on the list. A list something like the following may emerge: appeal to fear, rhythm, accompanying music, appeal of the subculture which Andy Warhol represents, the authority of the Bible, the contrast of the red and black colors of the print, the pictures of the old woman and of the children, the appeal to a nationalistic feeling, religious appeal, the overall organization of the ad, the humor of the ad, the images of leadership running through the essay, alliteration, rhyme, etc., etc. This list is a partial reproduction of the list I have obtained from using the persuasion slides in the Freshman English Office.

With the lesson on classification and the principle of division already learned, the students can now attempt a classification of this lengthy list into three or four manageable categories. With the right principles of division, they can arrive at the person (or authority or ethical) appeal, the emotional (or interest or pathetic) appeal, the subject matter (or "logical") appeal, and the stylistic appeal. These conclusions represent the stage of the inductive generalizations from the examples.

Since it is better to have the students arrive at the categories by themselves, it is advisable in this unit to defer the reading of the suggested chapters in the rhetorics until after the inductive nalysis.

Now the students can take the four appeals (personal, interest or emotional, subject matter, stylistic) and, in a class discussion or two, analyze Bernays' "What are You Supposed to Do if You Like Children?" None of the categories should be analyzed exhaustively, since the student's assignment will be to complete one or other or several of the categories and to write a paper about these techniques.

With this preparation the students are now ready to write a first draft of their analysis. Typical topics might be: "How Bernays Achieves Credibility by the Image of Herself She Projects" (analysis of ethical appeal), "Bernays' Appeals to the Emotions of Her Readers," "Bernays' Treatment of Possible Subgroups of Readers: Blacks, Women Liberationists, Men (?), Women's College

Administrators," (as aspect of pathetic appeal), "The Authorities Bernays Accepts and Those She Rejects," (an analysis of part of her logical appeal), "Some Recurring Images in Bernays' Prose," etc.

Students generally find the analysis of interests and emotions appealed to easy enough to master. Perhaps it might be useful to point up here a few suggestions as to the analysis of the ethical argument in Bernays essay, since it is not as conspicuous as the pathetic argument. Actually, the persona of the author is drawn rather deftly in each paragraph, so that by the end a rather definite portrait emerges. Consider some of the traits that emerge from the first paragraph: she is articulate; she is a woman who wants to be a woman (not a man); she is concerned about a movement whose theme is envious, resentful, and despairing; she opposes excesses. All of this is communicated indirectly. The other paragraphs can be similarly examined.

Since the careful analysis of induction and of deduction has not yet been made in the course, it is not possible to make a thorough analysis of Bernays' "logic." Some suggestions, however, can be made. Take some of the categorical assertions of Bernays, like "the liberation theme is resentful, envious, and despairing," or the movement is "wasteful and self-destructive," or the movement is "poison to women who want to be women," etc., and ask what foundation Bernays offers to substantiate these statements. What evidence does she offer to substantiate her statement that "blacks will only be satisfied when we all look more or less alike"?

Another interesting aspect about the logical argument of Bernays is the frequent recourse to arguments that depend upon meanings of words. Paragraph 2 (different-inferior), paragraph 4 (Do women know they are women?), paragraph 7 (meaning of fulfillment), and paragraph 8 (Women insist on being absolute equals) all depend for a substantial part of the argument on the meanings of words. The students might discuss the validity of these arguments.

For a paper on the difference between the logic of an expository paper and the logic of a paper that is heavily "persuasive," some students might compare the kind of arguments and sources used by Bernays with those used by Naomi Weisstein in "Psychology Constructs the Female," pp. 328-343, the previous essay in the Clayes anthology.

One of the major problems in teaching this kind of paper for the first time (the same applies to literary analyses) is to show the student how to use the mass of evidence which he has accumulated from the examination of the essay. The student's theme on Nathaniel West in Tibbetts, although intended as a research paper, can be helpful, pp. 267ff. Orwell's "Politics and the English Language," in Clayes, pp. 148-158, can also be useful in this respect. In Hairston's "Sample Student Themes," the following can be useful: pp. 278-279, 279-280, 281-282, 284-285.

UNIT IV: THE LIBRARY RESEARCH PAPER

I. OBJECTIVES

1. To learn to use three basic library research tools: the card catalogue, encyclopedias, and magazines.
2. To make an informative report which is an intelligent synthesis of materials from these three sources.

3. To use the proper mechanical form in making the report: use of quotation and paraphrase, footnoting bibliography.

II. MATERIALS

Texts. Hairston. Nothing in the text. Must be supplemented.
Tibbetts. Factual Writing, 102-111; Business and Technical Reporting, 309-340; Research Report, 238-282, including two student research reports, 254-281.
Winterowd. Informative Writing, 154-156; Research Paper, 217-234, including two student research themes, 475-477, and 481-484.

Readings. Burt. Jastrow, "The Age of the Earth," 192-196, is an example of informative writing.
Clayes. Weisstein, "Psychology Constructs the Female," pp. 328-343.

N.B. None of the anthologies give examples of research themes with footnotes, bibliography, etc. The selections, however, do exemplify good informative writing.

Handbook. "Library Paper," Section 33, pp. 404-457, including a sample theme. "Quotation Marks," Section 16, pp. 145-154; "Parallelism," Section 26, pp. 282-289.

Further Reading. On the sources of the information theory behind the ensuing suggestions, see Kinneavy, A Theory of Discourse, 89-105, 129-141, and 179-186. For a non-scholarly treatment in an upper-division text, see Kinneavy, Cope and Campbell, Aims and Audiences in Writing, "Conveying Information," 143-176.

III. SUGGESTIONS FOR TEACHING

Most of the suggestions for teaching are embodied in the following pages, which are the work of Susan Burton and her staff in the Undergraduage Library. However, a few introductory remarks may be helpful.

One of the most recurrent criticisms of the writing of students in the University revealed by the questionnaire conducted two years ago by Mr. Sledd was concerned with the inability of the students to find and use information in the library. In addition, the major criticism of the library unit in English 307 was that it sometimes consumed too much class time since there was just too much material to cover. For these reasons and because the use of the library tends to give more substance to student themes, bringing the students out of an information vacuum and into the commerce of the world of ideas, it has been thought advisable to divide the work of the acquisition of library skills between the two courses, English 306 and English 307 (or English 308). This division will also enable the student to write a shorter paper in English 306 and this preparatory exercise can forestall many of the problems of attempting to learn everything in one try in English 307.

What can be very important for the student is the stress on the techniques of compiling information--from the library as well as other sources--and the reporting of it in an interesting form to his audience. The three criteria for this reporting, as outlined by Winterowd, 154-155, are: factuality, surprise value, and comprehensiveness. The first is fairly obvious. But students tend to fail in the two second criteria. The besetting sin of many class reports is the fact that they contain no "news" for the audience. If the class is viewed as the audience for all or some of the informative reports and the class is made to rate the amount of "surprising," that is, new material in the report, the writer can often see that he has underestimated the knowledge level of his audience, and has succeeded in boring them.

The third criterion is comprehensiveness. A student reporting on Nixon's tenure as president who spends all of his time on Watergate gives misleading pictures of the years of Nixon in the White House because the picture is not comprehensive. Such a picture leads to a distorted view of the topic, even though the matters presented are factual and surprising.

Some combinations. It is possible to use the informative paper, the business and technical report, and the research paper in combination. All of these have in common the information component--that is why they are lumped together here. For the same reason, the journalistic news story and the radio or TV documentary could also be included. Indeed, both the news reporter and the writer of the documentary also frequently engage in research, although it may not be library research. What the informative paper may be turned into is a paper in the student's own discipline. The advantages of such an assignment are obvious: interest, motivation, knowledge basis, etc. The advantages all are student oriented. The major disadvantage is teacher oriented: the problem of correcting an area in which he may be lacking basic information is a hazard.

The informative paper can also be made the chance for a speech to the class. The difficulty with this endeavor is the enormous time which it entails.

It is obvious that the informative paper can be done at the same time as the library tour, or some time after it. The research paper can also be used as a paper on writing about literature. The danger here is also obvious; the student may be lead to parrot others' views of literature and not to analyze the work himself. But this difficulty is inherent in any research and is not the monopoly of literary studies.

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UNIT V: MAKING GENERALIZATIONS--THE INDUCTIVE THEME

I. OBJECTIVES

A. The student should come to a minimal understanding of the three criteria for a good generalization: variety, randomness, and numbers. The necessity of adequate definitions is also stressed.

B. The student should be able to use these three criteria in an inductive theme of his own.

II. MATERIALS

Texts. Hairston. Assertions, Assumptions, and Premises, 55-66; Evidence, 163-169; Induction, 179-189, 211-214.

Tibbetts. Forming a Thesis, 18-27; Induction and Deduction, 216-220.

Winterowd. The Scientific Paper, 150-154; Formal Logic, 255-256; Deduction and Induction, 257-260; Analogy, 262-264; Fallacies, 260-262.

Readings. Burt. Huxley, "Everyone is a Scientist," 265-270. The other selections in the section "Reason in Argument" are also pertinent. Seymour, "Understanding Language Differences," uses induction generally (280-288). Actually a more "scientific" example would help. See Clayes immediately below.

Clayes. Weisstein, "Psychology Constructs the Female," 328-343, discusses the lack of valid inductive evidence in many modern studies in psychology.

Further Readings. Some elementary texts in logic are excellent in their coverage of induction, but others tend to emphasize deduction almost or even exclusively. The opposite emphasis can be seen in books on statistics, generally speaking. Wesley Salmon, Logic (Prentice-Hall, Inc., ca. 1964) is a small but excellent book for both. W. V. Quine, Weaving the Web, is also a small and excellent introduction to both. Upper-division texts in English with good coverage of both are Martin and Ohmann, The Logic and Rhetoric of Exposition; and Kinneavy, Cope, and Campbell, Aims and Audiences in Writing, Induction, 111-118; deduction, 118-126. The latter contains a student "inductive theme" written at The University of Texas at Austin, 103-107.

Handbook. "Dangling Modifiers," Section 25b, 276-281. "Generalizations," 264 and "Objective and Relevant Evidence," 264-266.

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Tibbetts. Forming a Thesis, 18-27; Induction and Deduction, 216-220.

Winterowd. The Scientific Paper, 150-154; Formal Logic, 255-256; Deduction and Induction, 257-[illegible]60; Analogy, [illegible]; Fallacies, 260-262.

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[illegible] "Uncertain Modifiers," Gleason [illegible] 276-281. "Com-

III. SUGGESTIONS FOR TEACHING

As Huxley says in the essay anthologized in Burt, "Everyone is a scientist." By this he means that all of us have to engage at some time or another in describing or explaining a topic and offering some objective proof that the description or explanation is valid. And justified descriptions and explanations are the province of the scientist.

Proof, in this kind of writing or thinking, is subject to some basic rules. In one sense all of us know the rules, either by intuition or education; but in another sense, some conscious study of the rules will sharpen our ability to use the rules in our own writing and to analyze them when they are used by others.

What little research there is on the teaching of logic, especially as it relates to composition, supports the position of those who insist on teaching logic in conjunction with actual texts or situations rather than the practice of those who teach logic rules in isolation. Functional logic seems more effective than formal logic (just as functional grammar seems more effective than formal grammar--the evidence on this latter point is overwhelming).

Certainly one of the most common expectancies of the freshman English course is that some notion of evidence be given the students. Of course it is not only our concern; nearly all courses of the University share this interest. But, as the recent questionnaire of Mr. Sledd demonstrates, the faculty and students seem to place special blame on the freshman English course when students in later classes do not seem to have a sense of evidence.

One basic kind of evidence that students are expected to have some minimal norms for is the kind of evidence that suppobs a generalization. Making generalizations is the process of induction in logic. Consequently, this unit is devoted to considering in some detail the rules for making valid generalizations. Indeed many, if not the majority, of the papers which students in all areas will have to write in their college careers will call for evidence that supports generalizations.

In teaching induction there are two major areas of concern: paying attention to the meanings of terms; and taking care that the sample from which one generalizes is representative. The rules of inductive inference that assure a representative sample are the rule of variety, the rule of randomness, and the rule of numbers. Consequently, some attention will be given each of these matters, especially as each relates to the reading selection suggested for analysis, Weisstein's "Psychology Constructs the Female," in Clayes, 328-344.

Teaching the rules of induction can be taught inductively by having the students examine the criticisms which Weisstein raises against the generalizations of the psychologists.

Certainly one of her major concerns is with the careless meanings given to critical terms in matters related to liberation of women. This solicitude is particular noticeable in the early part of the essay, although it never totally disappears. In the first paragraph, the teacher can point to the following phrases as evidence of the care for definition early in the essay: "to tell us what 'true' liberation would mean," "describing the true natures of women," "a young woman's identity," "Woman is nurturance." Paragraph 2 continues with "woman is defined by her ability to attract

men." Paragraph 3 returns to the notion of "real liberation for women." Paragraph 4 speaks of making "use of the cultural definitions of man and woman," the use of the "sexist stereotype," the fact that media "define the possible." Paragraph 5 carries on the media's "ideas of human nature," and the "nature of human possibilities." In context it can be seen that each of these expressions is concerned with a matter of adequate or inadequate definition. The two major statements of the thesis of the paper at the beginning (paragraphs 6 and 9) both include the notion of definition in them: "Psychology has nothing to say about what women are really like," and "the first reason [is]. . . psychology's failure to understand what people are.

The students can continue the search for the concern for accurate definitions. Paragraphs 10, 12, and others reflect this concern, but in paragraphs 20, 35, 37, and especially 40 it becomes critical to her argument. It recurs in the final three paragraphs.

Since the students have already given some careful attention to definition, they can here profitably check the definitions which Weisstein is criticizing.

Secondly, it is clear that one of Weisstein's norms of evidence has to do with generalizations that are made without concern for a factor which might very well have made a big difference in interpreting results. Weisstein's second fundamental criticism of psychologists is that they have not taken into consideration the determining character of the social context. Neglecting an important factor is the consideration behind her mention of the "double blind" in paragraph 12; the "something [in the experimenters'] conduct which made one group of subjects do one thing, and another group of subjects do another thing," (paragraph 18); the same unidentified "something in the conduct of the teachers" in paragraph 19; the critical presence of other people in the Milgram variant experiment (paragraph 24); the presence of less testosterone in the females who are "more aggressive, competitive, and dominant than the male" (paragraph 29), etc., etc. This is undoubtedly the major criticism by Weisstein of her opponents' reasonings.

The students can continue the search for the dominance of this concern throughout the essay. Nearly all of the paragraphs having to do with the reductionist primate arguments are based on the fact that one or more major factor which could be relevant to the generalization have not been considered. See paragraphs 35,36,38, 40, etc.

Properly, Wesstein's focus in criticizing the psychologists is with their neglect of the rule of variety. If a sample is not varied, all the numbers in the world may simply confirm the bias that may be present.

> In making any generalization, therefore, any factor which could be considered relevant to the generalization must be considered and compared in samples possessing the factor and others not possessing the factor. Suppose you want to write a paper on the effectiveness of driver education courses. If you just go ahead and select a large number of people in a given community, compare the driving records of those who have had driver education courses with those that have not, and find that those with such courses have much better records, are you justified in concluding that driver education

courses had caused better driving? Not necessarily, for it may be that education generally (and not just driver education) might be the factor causing the improvement. To separate out this possible influencing factor, you need two subclasses in your sample, one containing educated people who have not had driver education and one containing educated people who have had driver education. If the results of your sampling show no basic difference between these two groups, then you have some reason to suspect that general education and not just driver education is the real cause of better driving habits. This example, incidentally, comes from an actual critique of research studies in driver education. Still other factors ought to be separated out for checking in subclasses of the sample: sex, age, drug addiction, mental health, drinking habits, driving conditions, etc. By careful stratifying of samples with these subclasses and separating out what seem to be relevant factors, generalizations come to be more and more accurate. A generalization which has not made careful provision for these various strata is immediately suspect.

What factors might seem relevant to the final generalization? No mechanical rule can be given to answer this important question, but if previous studies or common sense indicate a factor that might be relevant, it ought to be considered. In politics, for instance, age, economic group, race, religion, geographic location, sex, education, and party affiliation would all seem to be relevant to voting preferences and ought to be stratified. In determining cancer from smoking habits, kinds of smoking (cigar, cigarette, pipe), amount of smoking, age, sex, previous physical health, location (rural or urban and urban smog), etc., would all seem to be factors that should be separated out for consideration. Smog, for instance, was not given enough consideration as a possible factor in the studies on cancer and smoking reported in the Surgeon General's famous report on smoking and cancer in 1965, and the original Kinsey report on sex habits of males did not separate religious belief or rural-urban background as positive influencing factors.

What all of this means for the beginning student is that in writing an inductive theme he should choose the most important factors relevant to the generalization with a reminder to the reader that there are other factors which must be considered if final answers are to be given to a question.

(Kinneavy, Cope, and Campbell, Aims and Audiences in Writing, pp. 114-115.)

But there are two other concerns which must be heeded in sampling. Once the investigator has determined that certain classes or subclasses should be considered (that after he has stratified), he then must select the members of that subclass. And he should select them in such a way that any member of that subclass has an equal chance of being chosen in the sample. This is the usual definition given of random sampling.

Although she does not mention the word, Weisstein repeatedly also blames the psychologists for ignoring the rule of randomness. In discussing the use of primates, she remarks:

> But even for the limited function that primate arguments serve, the evidence has been misused. Invariably, only those primates have been cited which exhibit exactly the kind of behavior that the proponents of the biological basis of human female behavior wish were true for humans. (Paragraph 38, my italics).

In other words, the primates were not chosen randomly (nor were they varied). The same careless research she finds in Tiger's testosterone experiments (paragraph 28). Her condemnation of Freud's source for the theory of double orgasm is grounded on all three counts. The datum was not varied, not random, and not numerous. And she faults psychoanalytic theory generally with these deficiencies.

The final consideration of Weisstein is often the first consideration of most students when asked to be careful about generalizations--the concern for sufficient numbers. Weisstein does refer to numbers occasionally throughout her own analysis, but it is not an overriding issue. The Freud sample (paragraph 10), the worry about the number of judges in paragraph 12, the italicized statement that the judges' discriminations of heterosexuals from homosexuals was no better than chance (paragraph 12), the use of the same phrase in the next paragraph in the Harvard study, the actual transmission of the figures of the Eysenck report, one Rosenthal experiment, and several Milgram experiments (paragraphs 14, 18, 22, 23, 24)--all of these betray a solicitude for numbers.

The rule of numbers can be simply stated: the more, the better, assuming prior stratification and randomness and also assuming that numbers are attainable (historical examples are a problem) or desirable (some medicine testing is dangerous) or inexpensive (weapon testing is expensive), etc. Later on, in many disciplines, students will learn some statistical rules about numbers. But for the present, as long as students assure themselves that there is at least some responsibility in the care for numbers in a study, that may be the best that can be expected.

Some theme suggestions: There are many topics about which the student can hazard and test some generalizations. Having made a thorough analysis of Weisstein, it would be very possible to make some generalizations about Weisstein's essay and to support them by evidence from the essay. In fact, that is what a good deal of the last three pages of this syllabus have been doing. Indeed, analysis of the techniques of persuasion in the last unit was really an inductive theme also. In analyzing a short piece of prose (or poetry) the randomness and numbers become unimportant because it is possible to examine the whole field about which one is generalizing--the sample becomes the population.

Many other types of topics suggest themselves. On campus you might wish to investigate the financial, or religious, or political backgrounds of a sector of the student body or of the faculty; or you may wish to analyze student or faculty behavior patterns in a given area (attendance at certain kinds of cultural activities, sports participation, reading habits, musical interests, attitudes to student or faculty government, favorite programs on television, etc., etc.)

Larger topics from the town or city also suggest themselves. Transportation facilities, recreational facilities, city government, prices of certain items, customs in local elementary or high schools --all of these are relatively easy to look into.

Other discourse analyses suggest themselves. Trends in advertising, programming trends in television or radio or theater, appeals of different campaign orators, editorial biases in a newspaper, etc., etc. can all be looked into.

For teachers who still feel that they are not ready to assign a topic for the inductive theme, it is strongly suggested that they read "An Illustrative Example: Problems in the Inductive Theme," in Kinneavy, Cope, and Campbell, Aims and Audiences in Writing, pp. 133-135.

UNIT VI: EVALUATING OUR OWN AND OTHERS' NORMS-- A DEDUCTIVE THEME

I. OBJECTIVES

A. The ability to recognize, assess, and use the basic elements of a deductive system: axioms, conclusions, rules of inference, meanings.

B. The ability to recognize the following elements of a value system: subjective-objective-intersubjective values, hierarchy of values, value axioms, range of values.

II. MATERIALS

Texts. Hairston. "Assertions, Assumptions, and Premises," 55-56; "Deduction," 189-207; 215-218; "Fallacies," 233-244.

Tibbetts. "Forming a Thesis," 18-27; "Induction and Deduction," 216-220; "Fallacies," 221-228.

Winterowd. "The Scientific Paper," 150-154; "Formal Logic," 255-256; "Deduction and Induction," 257-260; "Analogy," 262-264; "Fallacies," 260-262.

Readings. Burt. Fromm, "The Worker as Creator or Machine," 223-229.

Clayes. Lifton and Olson, "The Nuclear Age," 412-421.

Handbook. "Reference of Pronouns," Section 28, 296-301.

Further Readings. A good coverage of deduction is to be found in Martin and Ohmann, The Logic and Rhetoric of Exposition. Probably the most thorough realistic coverage of deductive reasoning as applied to actual discourse is in Perelman and Olbrechts-Tyteca, The New Rhetoric. Kinneavy, Cope, and Campbell, Aims and Audiences in Writing, 118-126, use an example from law to illustrate the same methodology and components emphasized in this syllabus.

For value theory, as applied to composition, there are few references. However, Graves and Oldsey, From Fact to Judgment, have a good chapter on evaluation. And Kinneavy, Cope, and Campbell, Writing--Basic Modes of Organization, Chapter V, is an upper-division text with the same fundamental emphases as the present coverage, though it is expanded and more strictly limited to evaluation itself.

III. SUGGESTIONS FOR TEACHING

Importance of Deduction and Evaluation. Making responsible generalizations, the province of induction, is undoubtedly quite important; but possibly even more so is the ability to take a principle and realize its implications in different areas. And this is exactly what deduction does. It is true that teaching deduction is sometimes reduced to making students memorize some mechanical rules of inference, but deduction does not have to be so sterile. There are three different ways of teaching deduction: teaching the rules of the traditional syllogism, teaching the formulae of symbolic logic, and emphasizing the choice of axioms and the resulting applications. This unit is oriented to the third method.

In this unit, further, the teaching of deduction is combined with a look at evaluation for several reasons. In the first place, expository evaluation always uses deduction as a basic process; consequently evaluation is an excellent locus to study deduction. Secondly, evaluations exist in many (indeed all) disciplines and of course they are everywhere in life. Logicians, mechanical engineers, literary critics, and physicians evaluate respectively syllogisms, building materials, novels, and new drugs and their findings are reported in "scientific" journals. In addition, family life, school life, politics, business, religion, entertainment all involve values. And the values are expressed in language. Consequently it seems that a course in rhetoric which neglects evaluation does so at the risk of itself being accused by the students of being trivial.

The selection from the anthology, Lifton and Olson's "The Nuclear Age," is useful because it is a typical instance of evaluation and of deduction. It is not at all tidied up into neat syllogisms which follow one another in a sterile and meaningless fashion. Rather it often typically states one premise, omits a second or third, and draws a conclusion. And frequently there is no attempt to justify an assumed premise. Further, the authors never state their rules of inference (unlike Weisstein, who, as we have seen, in the inductive essay consciously adverts to her inductive rules of evidence). And finally, like many deductions and many evaluations,

it is continually concerned with the meanings of the terms being used.

These four elements of a deductive system then are the four areas with which we will concern ourselves: the axioms (or premises) of the system, the rules of inference, the conclusions drawn from the premises, and the rules of meaning.

THE RULES OF INFERENCE. Let us take a look at a conclusion, an inference, that is made by Lifton and Olson. They argue:

> If we understand the experience of religious conversion as involving a changed image of the cosmos and man's place within it, then certainly the responses of those early witnesses to atomic power would qualify as religious. There was a sense of a "new beginning," of making contact with the infinite and the feeling that life would never be the same again. (Paragraph 14, my italics).

The first clause of the first sentence is proposed as an axiom (the writers hope the reader will accept it without question); the second sentence is also proposed as an axiom (a fact which the reader will accept). Given these two statements, the underlined section follows as a logical conclusion. Why? Because axiom one defines a general class of experiences and labels them "religious"; axiom two establishes the fact that the responses of the early witnesses to atomic power belong in that category of experiences and therefore have the characteristics of that category. In other words, the particular case (reactions to atomic power) is shown to be a member of a general class and what is true of the class at large is asserted to be true of any member of the class. This is a rule of inference which we all use every day. Logicians who codify such rules call it by a technical name--it is the syllogism in mood Barbara. But even if we have never studied logic, we all use Barbara and similar rules every day.

The particular inference which we have been studying could also be analyzed as a case of an "if--then" argument also, because such general rules are translatable into each other. Let us take a look at an interesting group of deductions in the essay which involves both an "if--then" argument and an incompatibility argument.

> The possibility that the human species can annihilate itself with its own tools fundamentally alters the relationship of human imagination to each mode of symbolic continuity.
>
> The biological (and biosocial) mode is perhaps most obviously affected. The assumption of "living on" in one's descendants is made precarious. The aspiration of living on in one's nation is also undermined. . . . (paragraphs 27, 28)

This argument seems reasonable. If living on in one's descendants implies that the human race will continue, and the human race does not continue, then living on in one's descendants must be ruled out (this statemet of the argument is a mild simplification, getting rid of "possibilities" and "may"). Why is this reasonable? Because everyone recognizes it as a general case of "if statement p implies

statement q, and statement q is not true, then statement p is not true." This rule of inference also has a technical name with logicians, but we non-logicians use it every day also. Finally, the reason why the iticalized part of the argument above is accepted as a possibility is because of the danger of a complete nuclear holocaust. Put succinctly, this argument could be stated as follows. These two statements cannot both be true at the same time: "The human race will certainly continue" and "The human race may be destroyed by nuclear war." Since the second statement must now be accepted, the first must be rejected. This is a particular case of: Statement p and statement q cannot both be true; we know statement q to be true; therefore statement p is false. This is a third rule of inference (called the rule of incompatibility by some logicians). We also use it regularly.

The systematic study of these rules of inference is the business of logic. But we all have a fairly good common sense knowledge of them. No one really has to be taught Barbara--he knows it long before he studies logic. It is true that sometimes we violate these rules and our reasoning then becomes fallacious.

The rules of inference are, as far as we know, universal; that is to say, any normal human being who understands the grammar of the language and the meanings of the terms will agree with the rule of Barbara. It is in this sense that we say the rule has objective validity.

But most of our troubles with writing and reading deductive arguments stems more from unexpressed or unacceptable axioms than with objective rules of inference.

THE AXIOMS OF THE SYSTEM. By axioms we here mean the statements which the writer assumes as given; that is, the writer assumes that his reader will accept such statements without proof. These axioms represent a common starting point for writer and reader; they are assumptions from which conclusions can be drawn. They may be cultural or national beliefs, religious convictions, scientific dogmas, etc.

The important differences between Teller and Oppenheimer, or between the early and the later Oppenheimer, or between the later Oppenheimer and the government agents who denied him a security clearance, or between the pre-nuclear diplomacy and the post-nuclear diplomacy all lie, not in rules of inferences, but mainly in the different axioms which these opposing sides adopt.

Let us look at two opposing sets of axioms. One of Teller's axioms, used to argue for making more nuclear weapons, was that the adventuresome spirit of Western intellectual civilization called for further experimentation. Lifton and Olson, on the contrary, call this "ethical blindness" (paragraph 21). Adopting Teller's axiom (and possibly combining it with some others) leads to the "nuclearist" position. Lifton and Olson, starting out with the opposite assumption, will reach radically opposite conclusions. But both Teller and the two authors are being logical--the difference lies in their axioms.

It is clear that some Americans in 1959 (including Congress) agreed with Teller that larger nuclear bombs should be experimented with. It is also clear that Lifton and Olson (and others) unalterably opposed this principle. This axiom (and the values it presupposed and generated) obviously does not have the same "objective" value that we agreed could be assigned to the rules of inference--that is, we do not expect that every normal rational human being

will agree with Teller's position but it is also obvious that a number of people do accept it. Such a value or a principle we call "intersubjective." A totally personal value or principle that only one person might accept would be called "subjective." It seems clear that most of us consider some of our values objective, some intersubjective, and some subjective. The class might discuss some values from these viewpoints.

A writer must remember that purely subjective values or axioms are useless unless a person is writing only for himself. In most value themes, intersubjective axioms will be used, and the conclusions will usually have no more range of acceptance than those who accept the original axioms.

Often we are not even aware of the axioms which we ourselves use or of those which others use. Sometimes the axioms are not expressed. For example, we are told in paragraph 18 that Oppenheimer "and those with whom he worked were convinced that if the bomb could be developed quickly, its availability would hasten the end of the war and could even rid the world of war permanently." Accepting this as axiomatic, Oppenheimer (with the aid of some other axioms not expressed in the essay) reached the conclusion that the bomb should be used on an actual population. Some of his colleagues, accepting the same position, but with <u>different</u> (also unexpressed) other axioms, argued for a mere "demonstration." The intervening axioms, unexpressed in both cases, make the difference (if we assume they were both logical).

These several cases of opposing sets of axioms end up with very different value judgments: "Making larger bombs is (is not) morally justifiable" or "Bombing Hiroshima is (is not) justifiable." Indeed what make different value codes (moral, esthetic, economic, fashion, etc.) are the various axioms which serve as norms in the system. Usually there is an ordering of higher and lower importance. In Teller's code it is obvious that the duty of intellectual adventurism is a higher level axiom than something like "Avoid the danger that accompanies more destructive bombs." Also high on Teller's code is the preservation of the democratic ideal (see paragraph 23).

Many of the value axioms of Lifton and Olson could be constructed by looking at their use of superlatives throughout the essay, as well as the kinds of terms that recur throughout the essay. It seems clear that religion (of some sort) is high in their hierarchy. The students can check such terms as "ultimate issues of life and death," (paragraph 29), "ultimate nuclear violation, (paragraph 35), "ultimate threat . . . is not only death but meaninglessness." (paragraph 41), "the most perverse response," (paragraph 39), etc.

A time of change in these values and the axioms which they entail is always an interesting period for the logician because people then become more aware of their own axioms. Oppenheimer in 1949 "began to re-examine his own convictions," we are told. In effect he got rid of some of his old axioms and took on new ones.

The entire essay is fascinating because of the juxtaposition of different axioms held by different groups of people. The teacher can take almost any section at will and reach back to the axioms of different groups.

<u>CONCLUSIONS--OR THE APPLICATIONS OF THE AXIOMS</u>. Axioms are important because they serve as starting points. But what finally is crucial is the conclusion that is drawn from the axiom. The

dropping of the bomb on Hiroshima was the crucial logical decision. Possibly 200,000 Japanese were annihilated because of the initial axiom of people like Oppenheimer, who contended that it would bring a quick end to the war.

Axioms like this one are important because they affect many areas. A good part of "The Nuclear Age" is devoted to showing the various areas affected by the dropping of the atom bomb and the axioms this generated. Some of the areas which are discussed are: diplomacy (paragraphs 25 and 26), the various modes of symbolic continuity (biological, paragraph 28; theological, paragraphs 29 through 32; creative, paragraphs 33-34; nature, paragraphs 35-36), ultimate maninglessness (paragraph 41), etc.

What the deductive thinker sees is how various areas will be affected by the adoption of a given position (an axiom). The person who cannot think deductively cannot realize the effects of the positions he or others might take.

The foreseeing of the impact of a position on various areas constitutes the creative aspect of deduction. In this way, deduction is much more creative than is induction. This is clearly seen in science fiction in which new worlds are posited with different axioms from our own. The effects of these different axioms make the fiction novel and interesting. This aspect of deduction will be returned to when topics for deductive themes are suggested.

In many ways, one could compare the introduction of an important new axiom into a system to the injecting of a powerful chemical into the water of a mighty river at its very source. The teacher can try something like this with the class: Suppose that all policies in education are to be determined at the local level. After some preliminary definitions of terms like "policies," "local," etc., the class can then determine the effects of this axiom on many areas: the existence of state universities, the certification of teachers, the adoption of textbooks, segregation, etc. Ultimately, such a policy would necessitate the repeal of the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution.

RULES OF MEANING. The last paragraph suggested something which we have ignored up to the present. In deductive reasoning, as in inductive reasoning, there is considerable care given to definitions of terms.

Lifton and Olson's essay is typical in this regard. There is continual attention throughout the essay to meanings and differences in meanings and differences in interpretation. The solicitude for the meanings of "religious" or terms very close to it can be seen in more than one-third of the paragraphs of the essay. He is concerned with "meaninglessness" and "new meaning" (see especially paragraphs 41 and 45), with the "meaning of the weapons" (paragraph 26), etc.

Most of the time, particularly in legal cases, the meaning of a word is critical to the logic. Oppenheimer's notion of "Americanism" and the government's notion were obviously very far apart and the difference had severe repercussions. Paragraph 26, which investigates nuclearism's failure of the imagination--a failure to conceive in human terms the meaning of the weapons," can be very profitably examined from this point of view.

THEME SUGGESTIONS FOR DEDUCTION. There are really two very different ways with which to use deduction in themes. The first manner is often used by mathematicians, legislators, social welfare

workers, historians, and others. These people often take an axiom (or several), look around for the areas which will be affected by this axiom, and work out the applications of the axiom to the area. This is what Lifton and Olson did in much of their essay, especially in the latter part, paragraphs 25-42. The essay ends up being partly an explanation of some historical phenomena. That is one reason why it is included in a chapter called "A Sense of History."

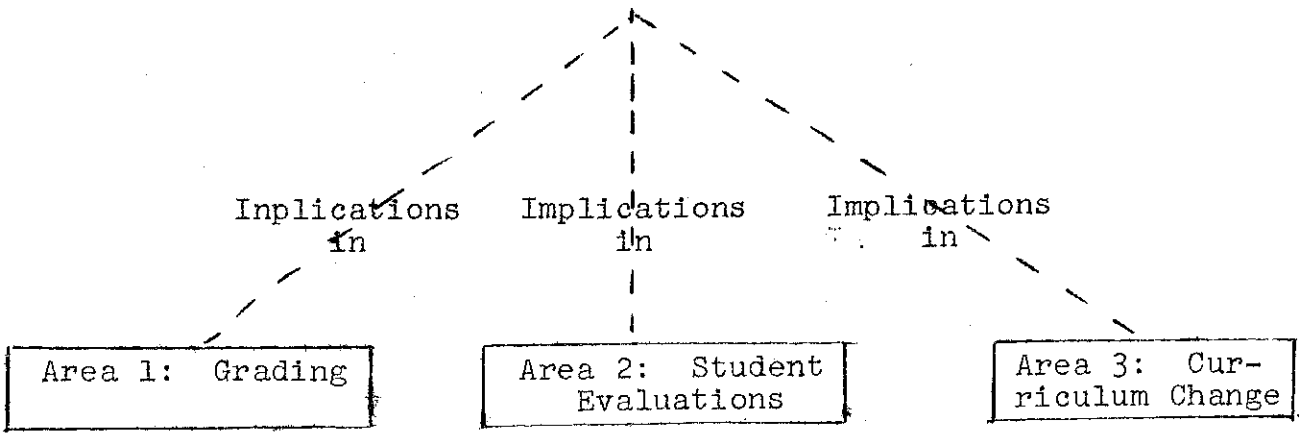
The second manner of using deduction is pre-eminently the technique used by the lawyer, or more generally the advocate of any type. The lawyer does not strike out with axioms and see what conclusions they lead to; rather he does just the opposite. He starts with a conclusion ("My client is innocent") and looks for the legal axioms which will establish that thesis as a conclusion. In one sense you might say the mathematician starts at the roots and climbs up the deductive tree; the lawyer starts from the top of the tree and climbs down.

The first manner is more creative, in a sense. Let us suggest an example of this. Suppose I wish to examine the effects in several areas of some axiom which I have recently come to accept. Let this be the axiom (Student grades for freshman English at The University of Texas at Austin are inflated, that is, they no longer accurately reflect composition achievements, especially in handling of mechanics and in the ability to provide evidence to substantiate a position).

I look around and see several areas that might be affected. Each area has some of its own "axioms" which I must work with. The chart suggests three of these, each with a subordinate axiom (of course there may be several subordinate axioms).

WRITING A PAPER BASED ON AXIOMS

Axiom 1: Student grades for freshman English at the University of Texas at Austin are inflated, that is, they no longer accurately reflect composition achievements, especially in handling of mechanics and in the ability to provide evidence to substantiate a position.



AXIOM 2: Faculty at UT wants good grades in Freshman English to reflect minimal mechanical and logical abilities

AXIOM 3: A heavy emphasis by an institution on good student evaluations tends to lead to grade inflation.

AXION 4: There is currently not enough attention paid to the systematic teaching of mechanics.

With this skeleton, I am in a position to write a substantial theme. I will have to make some careful definition. And I may have to give my audience some reason to accept the axioms which I propose, in this latter case, the theme may take on the dimensions of a combination deductive and inductive theme.

The second type of deductive theme is the type exemplified by the advocate: begin with the conclusion and attempt to find the reasons which will establish grounds for your audience to accept the conclusion. Suppose that you want to prove to the faculty of your department that students should have some say in the structuring of their own programs in a major field. What kind of political, or moral, or educational axioms do you think the majority of your faculty will accept which will allow you to derive your final thesis?

Another kind of deductive theme is the evaluative theme, the attempt to prove that something is worthwhile or valuable. Usually this involves looking for general norms in a value structure which your reader will grant you and which you can then apply to the particular object under consideration. This applies to automobiles, teachers, food, entertainment, poetry, or anything.

UNIT VII: A LOOK AT FOUR MODES OF EXPLAINING

I. OBJECTIVES

1. The student should have some minimal acquaintance with different modes of explanation: descriptive, causal, classificatory, narrative and purposive. evaluative

2. The student should be able to use one or several of these techniques of explanation in a theme of his own.

II. MATERIALS

Texts. Hairston. "Modes of Argument," 145-157, 160-163, some sections of "The Explanatory Power of Words," 69ff.
Tibbetts. "Developing Themes: Seven Strategies," 36-38, 42-77.
Winterowd. "Heuristics and the Burke Pentad," 98-105.

Readings. Burt. Jastrow, "The Age of the Earth," 192-198; Jeans, "Why the Sky Looks Blue," 207-209.
Clayes. Thoreau, "Civil Disobedience," 373-385.

Further Readings. "An Introduction to the Modes of Discourse" can be seen in Kinneavy, Cope, and Campbell, Writing--Basic Modes of Discourse, Chapter I

Handbook. "Transitions and Paragraphing," Sections 31b and d, 335-351, 355-371.

III. SUGGESTIONS FOR TEACHING

Up to this point, the student has done a classification theme, descriptive theme analysing some writer's persuasive techniques, an informative paper which was generally narrative in nature, and he ha analyzed some moral and political evaluations. Thus the student ha already been doing work in the four modes--classification, narration, description, and evaluation. From another point of view, some of

these assignments have been simply informative, others have attempted to prove a thesis. The last two, particularly, aimed at inductive and deductive proof.

Inductive and deductive proof are very closely related to the topic of this chapter and so are the four modes, at which we will take a closer and more systematic look. The notion which ties all of these concepts together is the notion of explanation.

To explain something usually means to give a satisfactory reason for the existence or behavior of the item in question. But satisfactory reasons are of several types.

> In everyday language, explanatory assertions are of several types. Thus there is explanation by indication of cause or agency: the vase fell because he jostled it; he wore that horrible tie because his wife likes it. And there is explanation by categorization or classification: he gestures with his hands because he is Italian; she is so defensive because she is really paranoid. Then there is explanation by purpose: he is willing to take all that abuse from the dean because he wants a promotion. And, of course, there is explanation by description: he was able to make the trip in four hours because Denver is, after all, only 200 miles from Gunnison.
>
> (Kinneavy, A Theory of Discourse, pp. 84-85).

It is easily seen that these explanations are in the four different modes which were mentioned above and which the students have been examining and using in the preceding units. It might be mentioned in passing that there are sophisticated philosophical theories of explanation corresponding to each of the modes (see Kinneavy, A Theory of Discourse, pp. 85-86). But our purpose here is not to look into these; rather, more modestly, we simply want to accustom the student to see how to use each of these approaches to writing when faced with a problem in explanation.

First, although we have been talking about description, narration, and the other modes and assuming we know what we mean by them, it might be worthwhile to make some more informed and thoughtful definitions and distinctions.

Such distinctions can be useful in other ways besides serving to understand explanation. All three of our textbooks study modes because they are also techniques of development of themes.

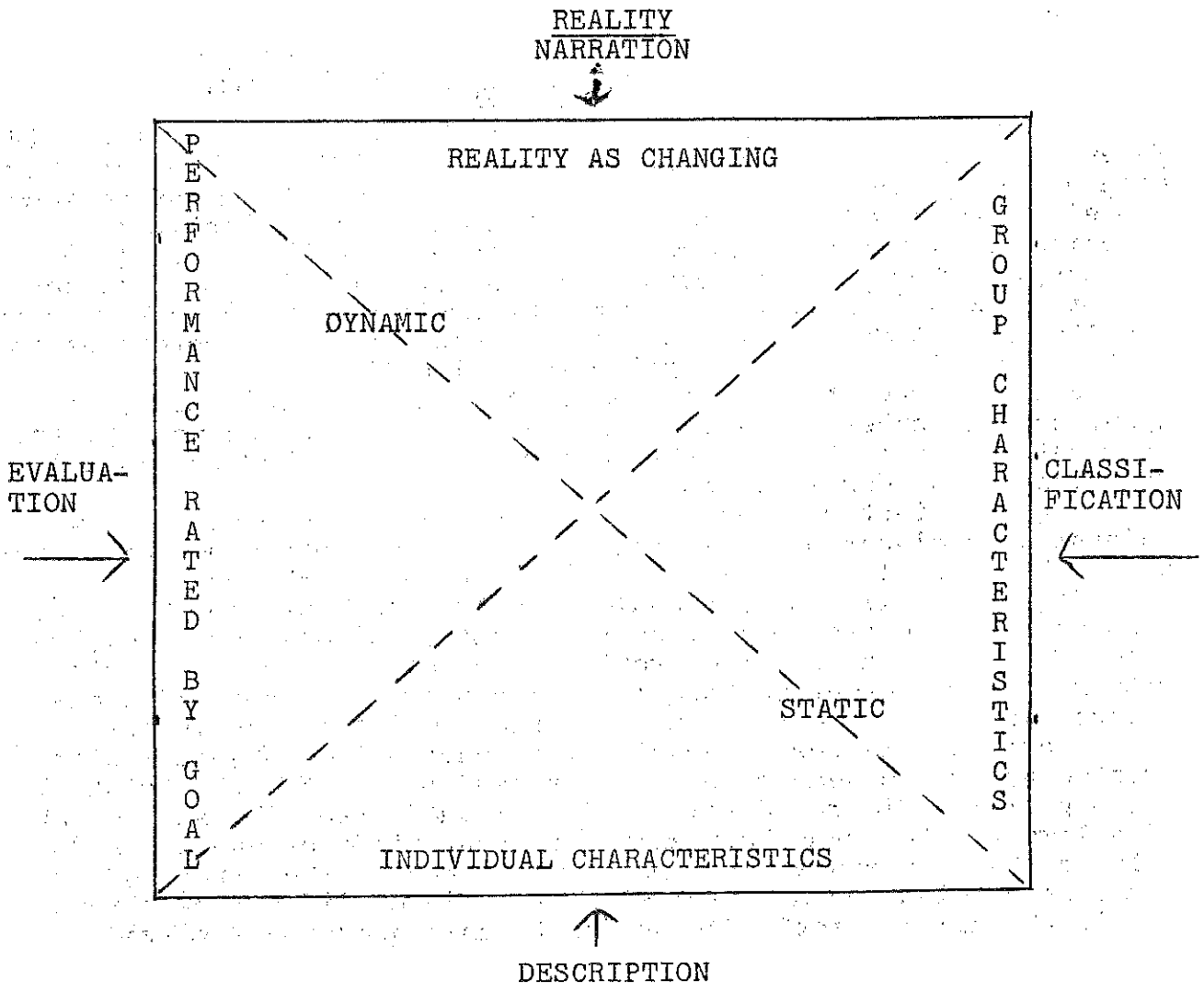
Hairston calls these techniques of development the "Modes of argument." Tibbetts calls them the seven strategies of development. Also, Winterowd handles the problem of generating subject matter with rather different techniques--Burke's pentad, some old ideas related to problem solving and some new ideas from heuristics.

Traditionally these techniques of developing subject matter were treated under the heading of the "issues" or "matters." Aristotle, but especially Cicero, developed the "issues" from the standpoint of a lawyer: How many basically different kinds of questions does a lawyer have to answer in approaching a case? The first and most basic issue might be a matter of fact: Did or did not my client commit the alleged act? The answer to this question involved a

matter of fact. Possibly the client had actually committed the act (say, killed someone). But the killing was not a murder, it was an act of self-defense--this then became a matter of fact and also of definition. Finally, the client may well have killed someone and it may well have been murder, but it may be that the murder was for the good of the commonwealth (as, perhaps, the murder of Caesar); here the issue is a matter of value or quality--the murder was really a good act, good for the state. Cicero therefore had three main issues: matters of fact, matters of definition, and matters of value.

If one subdivides matters of fact into matters of dynamic fact (event, happening), detailed in narrative; and static fact (condition, position, posture, etc.), detailed in description; and retains the other two matters of definition and value, there emerge four issues or matters: descriptive matters, narrative matters, definitional (or classificatory) matters, and value matters. These were formerly called the forms of discourse and now are often called the modes of discourse. The figure on the following page is a graphic illustration of these modes and some examples of each.

The Modes of Discourse as Aspects of Reality



NARRATION	DESCRIPTION	CLASSIFICATION	EVALUATION
Biography	Of Image Structures in a poem, short story	Definition of: novel, lyric democracy, freedom, change, . . .	Of drama, drama performances, short stories
History	Of phoneme systems of English	Classifications of: literary types, governments, languages, sounds of language, dialects, . . .	Of a political system
News stories	Of structure of a local government system	Comparisons and/or contrasts: literary types, governments, dialects, ideologies, religious systems, . . .	Of religious systems
Novel	Of make-up of a cell		Of educational systems
Epic	Of geological formations of Grand Canyon		Of motors, transportation systems,...
Short Story	Of organization of a book, plays, . . .		Of the actions of individuals or groups
Lyric	Of plot structure of a novel, . . .		
Drama	Of individuals		
Case Histories in psychology, medicine			
Character sketches			

The main notions which the students should be able to get out of studying the modes are the following: (1) any topic or thing can be developed by treating it from the standpoint of each of the modes; (2) the method of development depends on what the writer is trying to convey to the reader. In writing explanations this latter point is very important. Each of these two ideas needs a little explanation.

Any object (and therefore any topic of composition) can be developed by viewing it descriptively, narratively, classificatorily, or evaluatively. To illustrate this, students can be assigned a topic--say "My Home Town," "The University of Texas," "My Wife," etc. Then some students can write a description of say, The University of Texas; others can write a history of the University; still others can classify the University into the many categories of which it is a member; finally some students can evaluate it.

Secondly, one does not pick the method of development as one picks among ice cream choices at Baskin Robbins. One picks the method related to the purpose of the communication. If one student is trying to convince another to come to The University of Texas,

the student would generally operate in the evaluative mode, though description, narration, and classification would be present in order to bring out the evaluation.

Let us now apply these notions to explanation. And to see how this can be done, let us examine some different kinds of explanation offered by Thoreau in "Civil Disobedience." The essay is itself an explanation of his refusal to pay the poll tax. Without raising the substantive issues raised by the essay, let us examine several facets of his explanation.

Explanation usually has to be made when the readers find something strange or unaccountable in a situation. Thoreau's not paying his taxes was, on the face of it, rather curious and abnormal.

On the way to the explanation, Thoreau introduces other ideas which themselves seem to call for subexplanations. Thus in the first two paragraphs, Thoreau contends that the government of the country at that time had "never of itself furthered any enterprise, but by the alacrity with which it got out of its way" (paragraph 2). He explains this rather extraordinary statement by some proof: "It does not keep the country free. It does not settle the West. It does not educate. The character inherent in the American people has done all that has been accomplished; and it would have done somewhat more, if the government had not sometimes got in its way" (paragraph 2, his italics).

descriptive mode

The particulars which Thoreau lists enable him to make a descriptive generalization about the government: it has "never of itself furthered any enterprise." This is an obvious inductive procedure used to explain Thoreau's characterization of the Government of the time. The same technique had been used at the end of the first paragraph to explain and justify another statement he had made about the government. The pattern is used at other instances in the essay.

classificatory mode

Sometimes Thoreau does not wish merely to characterize an individual government as such, or individual men as such (to describe) but governments in general or men in general or voters in general (to classify). Such are the concerns in paragraphs 4 and 5, where he makes some rather harsh statements about majority rule, undue respect for the law, and the mass of men in their attitudes to government (either mere bodies or conscienceless minds). To explain these rather shocking generalizations about majorities, soldiers, constables, legislators, politicians, ministers, voters, and others, he adduces the experiences which the reader has had--these experiences, he maintains, are the evidence which justifies his statements. Again, but this time to explain statements about whole classes of men, he generalizes from instances which the reader is felt to be familiar with.

Inductive generalizations to explain positions taken are one of the most frequent type of explanation given for some kinds of events. Indeed this is a common theory of explanation, often called the "probable" theory of explanation, because inductive generalizations often are only probable rather than certain.

Sometimes the explanation is still in terms of classes of situations, but from a slightly different point of view. Take the explanation in paragraph 8, one of the arguments which is at the heart of civil disobedience. He starts out by reminding his readers that "all men recognize the right of revolution; that is the right to refuse allegiance to, and to resist the government, when its tyranny or its inefficiency are great and unendurable." Then by pointing out that slaves make up a sixth of the population and that the country is unjustly being subjected to military law (because of the Mexican War), he concludes that it is time to rebel. In other words the circumstances of the time made the government tyrannical and inefficient.

This explanation is more complex. It begins with a generalization for which no justification is given, the right to revolution under certain circumstances. This principal serves as a major premise of his argument. The minor premise of his argument is that these circumstances indeed do exist at the present time. To explain, that is, give reasons for this contention, he points to the slave element of the population and the rule by military law. In other words, he gives particulars to support his minor premise: the minor premise shows that the circumstances of the major premise prevail. Therefore, the conclusion, his explanation, follows.

An explanation of this sort, showing that the event falls under a general rule of formula, is said to be an example of the "covering law" theory of explanation, or the deductive theory of explanation. And the law establishes a class or set of events, from which there is no exception.

Thoreau has several "covering law" formulae like this one, some possibly even more absolute. In paragraph 27, "They only can force me who obey a higher law than I' is one of them. The nature of this higher law is indicated in paragraph 4: "The only obligation which I have a right to assume is to do at any time what I think right." These laws obviously have axiomatic force with Thoreau. From them he can draw conclusions in any area. For explanations they constitute a sort of ultimate court of appeal.

The minor premise of the argument which we have just examined is worth looking at from another perspective. The government, he says, is to be rebelled against because it supports slavery and engages in unjust war. The argument would not be valid without the corroboration of facts like these. The disclosure of these facts makes possible the explanation. Such factual disclosures make up a fair portion of the explanations given by historians, lawyers, and journalists.

The facts which historians, journalists, lawyers, and others supply as explanation are often causes of the event. What explanation is there for the invasion by North Korea of South Korea in 1954? An immediate answer to this question given by one political school is: Russia coerced North Korea into carrying out the invasion. Many would be satisfied with this response; others might want to know why Russia wanted the war to be waged. The "causal" explanation by indicating agency, "Russia made Korea do it," then needs

further explanation by another type of explanation, which we will examine shortly.

Thoreau uses "causal" explanation at several points in his essay. One use is in paragraph 10, where apparent and real causes are contrasted. The students can find other causal explanations in the essay.

Thoreau's act of rebellion in this instance was the refusal to pay his poll tax. This was his "civil disobedience," his passive resistance to government. He went to jail for this; and he contended that every man of conscience should have done the same (paragraph 22). The reason for his civil disobedience was to force the state back to a position of justice and right. As he told the office holder, "If you really wish to do anything, resign your office" (paragraph 22). The explanation, the reason, for the resignation is given in the first clause, "If you really wish to do anything." This is explanation by purpose, another common kind of explanation recognized by authorities in this field. (Sometimes it can be reduced to a covering law, but sometimes it cannot.)

Students can now look through the essay for other examples of descriptive, classificatory, narrative, and purpose explanations.

Topics for Themes

There always are two general types of themes which students can write after an analysis like the preceding. They can write an analytical paper, examining some of the techniques of explanation in Thoreau's essay or someone else's.

Or, secondly, they can write an explanation theme themselves. Here are some topics which they might try. They are oriented to one of the modes in a dominant way, although the use of several modes is not at all to be discouraged. (1) Suppose that a dam is being proposed for a certain region of the country. Imagine that the student represents a given locality attempting to explain to the legislature why the dam should be situated in his area. What purpose and descriptive explanations might the student give in his explanation? Instead of a dam, another facility may be substituted: a tunnel, a subway, an airport, a nuclear power plant, etc. A negative point of view might be taken instead of an affirmative. (2) Explain why one motor is more efficient than another motor. What types of descriptive, narrative, or purpose explanation can be used for this explanation? Instead of motor, some other agency might be substituted: one kind of government over another, one kind of football offense over another, one kind of schooling over another, etc. (3) Explain some rather complex phenomenon that you consider yourself to be an expert in to your classmates, who probably know very little about it: skydiving, Texas politics, etc., etc. (4) Take a historical event and try to explain it. Suggested topics: the invasion of politics into the Olympics, the reasons why Reagan entered the campaign for Republican candidate for president, the reason for the rise of Jimmy Carter in the Democratic party, the reasons for the deterioration in support for Wallace this year, etc.

UNIT VIII: EXPLORING A NEW SUBJECT

I. OBJECTIVES

A. The student will be introduced to the basic procedures of exploratory thinking: gathering relevant background information, questioning assumptions by logical analysis, repudiating unfounded assumptions, suggesting other explanations, testing these suggestions by procedures which can be validated.

B. The student should be able to detail in intelligent prose an exploration of some subject using some of these stages of exploratory analysis.

II. MATERIALS

Texts. Hairston. "A New Kind of Argument: The Rogerian Approach," 207-211.
Winterowd. "Exploratory Writing," 154-164; included in this section is an excellent illustrative piece.
Tibbetts. Needs to be supplemented.

Readings. Burt. Salutin, "The Great Canadian History Robbery," 64-70, re-examines some assumptions about Canadian history which he had been taught in school. It goes through most of the stages of exploration as outlined by Winterowd.
Clayes. Lewis, "A Plague of Giants," 304-308; a more complex example is Ophuls, "The Scarcity Society," 310-318.

Handbook. "Tense and Mood Sequence," Tense, Sec. 7b, 7d; Mood, Sec. 27.

III. SUGGESTIONS FOR TEACHING

The exploratory theme is appealing to a student for some very compelling reasons: (1) it is easier to question something intelligently without pretending to come with the correct answer along with the evidence for it; (2) in many of his own positions--political, religious, moral, educational--the student is really more in an exploratory position than in one in which he can dogmatically announce his position and prove it with solid evidence; (3) there is a serious relevance to many exploratory issues for the college student--indeed for all of us.

For all of its appeal, however, the exploratory theme, if it goes through all of its stages, can be the most complex. The first stage, the gathering of background information on the topic, can be an informative theme in miniature. The second stage, the questioning of the assumptions, is a logical exercise in either induction or deduction. The third stage, the repudiation of the commonly recognized assumptions, must be based on either generalizations or conclusions drawn from principles--and is therefore an inductive or deductive theme or a combination of both. The search for a new model is an exercise in explanatory imagination. Finally, the testing of the hypothesis is also an exercise in logic.

For these reasons, the exploratory theme has been deferred until the latter stages of the course. However, it may be, for the students, the most significant theme in the entire course.

The three textbooks differ considerably in their treatments of this unit. Hairston treats Rogerian logic, emphasizing the necessity of a sympathetic attempt to understand the points of view of those who differ with us in order to avoid closing our minds to a possible resolution of difficulties.

Actually, the Rogerian approach is an important attitude in exploration. The process of exploration, however, takes this attitude as essential and moves on to other steps. Winterowd outlines these other steps and illustrates them brilliantly with an excellent example. In a sense it would be desirable to have the two texts combined to achieve the best presentation. Tibbetts, unfortunately, does not pay any attention to this topic.

For the sake of the Hairston and Tibbetts groups, then, the stages of the exploration process will be shown as they are exhibited in a brief essay in the Clayes anthology, "A Plague of Giants," by Lewis.

The first stage of any complete exploratory process is gathering the relevant background information on the currently accepted solutions of the problem. Sometimes this is not necessary since it is so well known that no background research is necessary. This preliminary knowledge (and the accepted attitudes) is called by some writers the current dogma. The current dogma is stated quite succinctly by Lewis in paragraph 3, "Most of us have been brought up to believe that bigness brings efficiency in business and government." He then outlines the effects of this attitude.

The second stage, the questioning of this dogma, actually occupies a fair amount of the attention of the author in the essay. Paragraphs 1, 2, 4, 6, 7, and 8 all have to do with the questioning of the dogma of bigness and the reasons for this questioning. "But now the belief in bigness is being challenged on all sides," he says in paragraph 4.

The evidence builds up to paragraph 9, at which time Lewis indicates that the assumption has been repudiated. But he then returns to the evidence and makes a stronger case for the rejection of the assumption in paragraphs 11 to 14. Paragraphs 11 and 12 give reasons for the lack of humanity of big organizations and paragraphs 13 and 14 explain the inefficiency of the organizations talked about earlier in paragraph 8.

The repudiation of the assumption is most clearly stated in paragraph 9: "'Almost all large bodies . . . have become afflicted by a new wasting disease, giantism'." This rejection of previously accepted notions is called the crisis by some writers in this area because of the logical and sometimes emotional turning points involved.

If bigness is not the solution to our current problems, the question then naturally arises, "What is?". Several alternative solutions (hypotheses) are proposed. Smallness is suggested in paragraphs 15, 16, 17, and 18. Its feasibility in limited situations is acknowledged. But the acid test of the hypothesis, "smallness is generally better," has yet to be made. The problems are hinted at in paragraphs 20-23.

Like many exploratory themes, "A Plague of Giants" does not solve the problem. It only moves in the direction of a solution.

THEME TOPICS. Topics for an exploratory theme can be taken from practically any area of interest. Students often turn to religious, moral, or political issues when turned into the exploratory pasture --probably because some of their fundamental dogmas in these areas are currently being revised. As long as the teacher emphasizes the necessity of background information, logical analysis of dogma, rational motives for crisis, logical testing of hypotheses, such topics can be fascinating for the students. The danger one must avoid is to allow the paper to move from an expository paper into a pure expressive statement of beliefs or commitments. There are other places and times for these latter types of composition and the students should be made to see this point before they turn in something in which they have a heavy personal stake but which is not "expository."

By this time, theme topics of this nature should have been suggested by the journals which the students are keeping throughout the course.

Of course exploratory themes do not have to be on intensely personal subjects. I have had excellent themes on: the grading system in college, the importance of athletics at The University of Texas at Austin, the notion of 45 hours of required subjects in the average undergraduate degree program, etc.

Some fairly simple topics for exploratory themes are given in the chapter "Exploring a Problem," written by Campbell, in Kinneavy, Cope, and Campbell, Aims and Audiences in Writing, pp. 94-100. The entire chapter is good background reading for this unit.

UNIT IX: CAUSES AND EFFECTS

I. OBJECTIVES

1. The student will become acquainted with some basic norms of establishing relationships between the single cause and an effect, between combinations of causes and effects, and between alternate or interchangeable causes and effects.
2. The student will write a cause and effect theme being careful to establish the proper relationship between causes and effects.

II. MATERIALS

Texts. Hairston. "The Argument from Cause and Effect," 155-157.
Tibbetts. "Strategy 3: Cause and Effect," 51-56.
Winterowd. Has to be supplemented.

Readings. Burt. Fromm, "The Worker as Creator or Machine," 223-231; Steinbeck, "Americans and the Land," 209-216.
Clayes. Clark, "The Mother of Crime," 97-105.

III. SUGGESTIONS FOR TEACHING

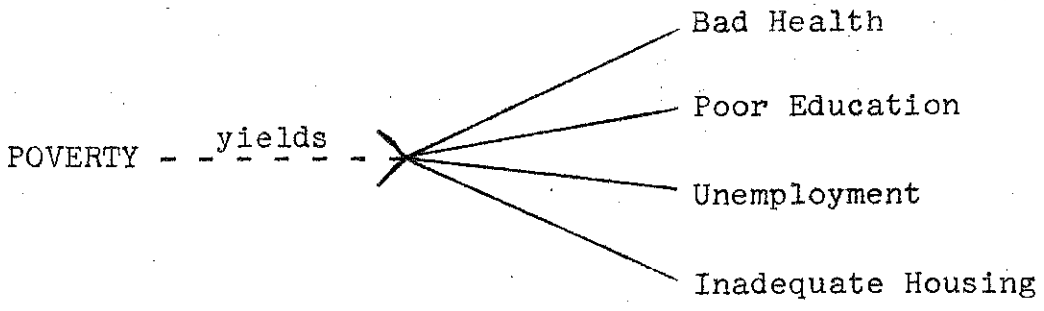
Tibbetts and Tibbetts begin their "Suggestions for Teaching Causation Themes" with the following remark: "Causation themes are among the most demanding you will do, mainly because a good deal of mental effort may be required on a subject before you can start

writing" (p. 53). Most teachers who have tried causation themes will probably agree with this statement. We have deferred the consideration of cause and effect till the end of the course because what we have seen in induction, in writing narrative research papers, and in explanation all can help us see the several issues involved in an intelligent causal analysis.

Clark's essay on the relationship of poverty to the common causes of crime poses several of the major questions which should be raised in a first serious look at causal analysis. We say first look because causal analysis will occupy many of the students in their future undergraduate careers. The English major will always be concerned with plot analysis and plot is a matter of causal sequence. But majors in such divers areas as psychology, geology, economics, education, engineering, politics, pre-medicine, pre-dentistry, business, history, and many others will necessarily be directly or indirectly involved with causal analysis the rest of their careers.

There are two major causal lines established in Clark's essay. In the first, Clark establishes a direct relationship between "poverty and its consequences: illness, idleness, ugly surroundings, hopelessness" (paragraph 2). Roughly the same listing occurs in what he calls the "harvest of poverty--ignorance, disease, slums, discrimination, segregation, despair" (paragraph 4). An investigation of these basic effects makes up the bulk of the essay under the headings of bad physical and mental health (paragraphs 6-12), poor education (paragraphs 13-15), unemployment (paragraphs 16-26), and inadequate housing (paragraphs 27-37).

The second causal line is from the combination of these four agencies to produce crime. The two formulas might be presented graphically as follows:



Bad Health + Poor Education + Unemployment + Inadequate Housing - - yield - - - - > CRIME

These two formulas, however, are just a simplification of Clark's message. Indeed, particularly the first one is quite inaccurate. Why is this so? If we look at the statistics, which Clark is careful to supply us with in nearly every area, we should read some important cautions about cause-effect relationships in the essay.

It is true that in the beginning of the essay Clark seems to focus on poverty as a <u>single</u> cause of crime through the agencies of

the four intermediate causes which he analyzes (see the citations in paragraphs 2, 4, 5, quoted above). And his conclusion is also aimed at a solitary target: "The solutions for our slums, for racism and crime in mass society, are basically economic" (paragraph 45, the entire paragraph is relevant to this point).

Nevertheless, at least as a cause of crime, nearly all of his statistics caution us to read this paragraph with some reservations.

To establish poverty as the single cause of crime, it would be required that poverty should be shown to be an indispensable condition for all crime and that poverty should be all that is needed to produce crime. The first requirement would make poverty a necessary condition for all crime and the second condition would make it the sufficient condition for all crime. Now Clark is careful to point out that neither of these situations holds.

It is clear that poverty is not a necessary condition for crime because of several statements. Two ways to show that a condition is not a necessary one in the production of an effect are: (1) to produce a positive instance of the effect (crime) in the absence of the cause in question (poverty); (2) to produce a negative instance of the effect (no crime) in the presence of the cause in question. Clark does both: (1) crimes are committed, he says, by "affluent suburban teenagers . . . [and] college students" (paragraph 4); (2) non-criminal situations exist in poverty areas ("Yet most who live in poverty never commit a serious crime, paragraph 3).

The neat circumstance in which the single cause can be aligned to the single effect is sometimes produced in laboratory research where the so-called experimental group differs from the control group by only one major distinction: the factor being investigated. Thus in an educational investigation testing a method of teaching geometry an experimental group of 800 students might be taught by the method in question but in all other respects would be given the same treatment as a comparable control group. If a significant difference in the results were to be noticed, it could be concluded that the method in question was the cause of the difference (provided that the groups were actually equivalent in all other respects).

The careful isolating of these relevant factors is, as we have seen, the major issue in arriving at valid inductive generalizations. And, since many inductive generalizations have to do with cause-effect relationships, the connection between induction and causal analysis becomes very evident.

The current (August 9, 1976) mystery disease that is responsible for the death of 27 and the hospitalization of over 155 of those who attended the American Legion convention in Philadelphia July 21-24 provides another interesting example of the use of the presence and absence of suggested causes in an attempt to identify the source of the trouble. Researchers at the Federal Center for Disease Control in Atlanta, after some preliminary checking of symptoms, suggested five plausible causes: fungi, viruses (especially a flu virus), infectious microbes, bacteria, toxins. By examining positive instances of the effect--in this case, cultures prepared from tissues of bodies of the victims--they have ruled out infections arising from fungi, viruses, infectious microbes and bacteria. Thus, by elimination, toxin seems to be the decisive factor. (Information from "The Legion Disease," NBC Special Report, 8/6/76).

Several remarks might be made about this method. In the first place, the conclusion is only as good as the original assumption that one of the five suggested causes is the culprit. If another factor, not included in the five named above, were to be relevant, the current conclusion would have to be challenged. Secondly, although the investigation has been narrowed down to toxins, this is still a very extended territory.

The territory within which Clark's investigations into the causes of crime take place is a considerably larger terrain. And the intermediate causes--bad health, poor education, unemployment, and inadequate housing--make the analysis a much more complicated process.

Given the operation of four possible causes, Clark had several alternative interpretations: it might be that in some cases bad health was the cause of crime and no other important cause was present; in other cases poor education might be the sole operating cause, etc. This set of interpretations would rest on an alternating or interchangeable cause operating at any time; any one of these would be sufficient at any one time, but none of them would be necessary in all cases.

The possibility of changing sufficient causes is a possibility to which Clark does not give any attention. This particular situation is somewhat more difficult to test for. Take the two suggested alternatives above: either bad health or poor education; in all situations of crime either one or the other of these would have to be present and any other alternative would have to be absent in at least one positive crime situation.

This would be the test if the rule would be absolute, that is, if the other causes were to be completely excluded and if the two involved, bad health and poor education, were the only two real causes of crime.

Of course neither of these claims is made by Clark. Indeed they would be impossible to sustain in the light of the other evidence he presents.

He thus rejects a single cause as a solution and an alternation of causes. The solution he does adopt is that of a combination of causes operating simultaneously. Individually, none of these four is a necessary cause: "People do not commit crime because they are black or poor or ignorant or unemployed or live in ugly homes. . . Many of our most benevolent and gentle people have suffered extreme poverty and severe illness" (paragraph 43). But these are the major causes of poverty: "You will not eliminate crime by eliminating poverty, ignorance, poor health and ugly environments. But it is clear that such conditions are <u>demonstrably responsible</u> for most crime--for nearly all crime that is foreseeable and can be prevented" (paragraph 42, my italics). But it is these causes taken collectively that produce crime: "<u>But the cumulative effect of all these disadvantages</u>. . .take a heavy toll" (paragraph 43, my italics).

The proof for this statement lies in the many statistics which have preceded the conclusion. The correlation of crime areas with the areas of bad health, poor education, unemployment, and inadequate housing is the justification for the final conclusion. Such a high correlation of these factors cannot be accidental. Consequently his conclusion has a high degree of probability and that is all that can be arrived at with this sort of sociological data. No absolute claims are made for any of the several causes operating

singly; even operating collectively no absolute claim is made. But there is a high degree of probability.

Suggested Theme Topics--As with all of these units, there is, on the one hand, the choice between an analytical theme which attempts to examine and assess the cause-effect claims made by some author and, on the other hand, the essay in which the student establishes some cause-effect relationships, and attempts to justify them.

Suggestions for both the analytical and the productive papers are excellent in Tibbetts, pp. 53ff.; Burt, after each of the essays in his section of "Causal Analysis," and in Clayes, both the anthology, 104-105 and the Teacher's Manual, p. 29.

UNIT X: STYLE

I. OBJECTIVES

1. The student should be able to use the style appropriate to the various kinds of papers he writes in the course and the kinds of audiences for which he writes them.
2. The student should be able to distinguish propriety and success in style.

II. MATERIALS

Texts. Hairston. "Words," 69-94; "Persuasive Power of Words," 95-144.
Tibbetts. "Succeeding With Words," 126-146; "Shaping Better Sentences, I, II" 147-189; "A Successful Style," 190-203.
Winterowd. "Words," 396-419; "The Sentence," 340-396; Figurative Language," 419-437; "What Are Dialects?" 330-335; "Analysis of Style," 437-469; "Revising," 68-72.

Readings. Among the anthologies, only Clayes pays attention to aspects of style. "Style," 165-207; "Parallelism, Repetition, Metaphor," 251-271; "Concreteness and Symbol," 272-294; "Illustration and Naturalness," 295-314.

Further Readings. See the bibliography at the end of this section. Some readings are indicated in the syllabus itself.

Handbook. "Variety," Section 30, 314-327; "Emphasis," Section 29, 302-313.

III. SUGGESTIONS FOR TEACHING

Five fairly discrete topics are subsumed under the present unit: diction, sentence structure, figurative language, dialects, and style generally considered. The various emphases in these topics can be seen in the following comparative chart:

STYLE IN THE THREE TEXTS

Winterowd	Tibbetts	Hairston
Diction	Diction	Diction
Sign and Symbol 397-399	Wordiness 143	
Jargon 409	Jargon 144-146	Jargon 75-88
	Accuracy 126	
	Vagueness 142	
Abstract-Concrete 411, 420, 449	Abstract-Concrete 128-131	Abstract-Concrete 69-74
	Effectiveness 128ff	
Denotation and Connotation 399-404	Connotation 132-134	Connotation 95-104, 128-133
Figurative Language 421	Figurative Language 134-137	Figurative Language
Metaphor 402-423, 430		Metaphor 104-113; 133-136
Simile 430		
Euphemism 404		Euphemism 88
Irony 431		Irony 123-128
Other figures 434-435	Overstatement 143	
	Cliches 143	
Sentence Structure	Sentence Structure	
T-Unit 438, 444, passim	Base 148, 161-163	
	Types of bases, 171-185	
Cumulative modifiers 445-454, 341, 362	Active, Passive	
	Is, It, There	
Transformations 345-349		
Length 443-448	Variety 185-194	
Repetition 443	Inversion,	
Periodic-Loose 381-382	Periodic	
	Cumulative	
Balance 443, 387	Balance	
Coordination 448	Sentence Openers 151-158	
	Sentence Interrupters 157-159	
	Sentence Closers 159	
Parallelism 387	Parallelism 163-169	
Sentence Components 349-381		
Relatives 349-353		
Nominals 353-357		
Complements 358-361		
Prep. Phrase 364-366		
Noun Clusters 366-8		
Verb Clusters 369-72		
Adverb Clusters 372-374		
Adj. Clusters 374-5		
Clause Struct 381-3		

Style in the Three Texts, continued

Winterowd	Tibbetts	Hairston
Style in General Tone, Point of View 453-454, 33-35, 126-132, 144-146 Dialects 93-97, 330-335	Style in General Tone, Point of View 190, 197	Style in General Tone 113-123; 136-144

It is evident from the chart that the treatment of style differs considerably from text to text. In some areas, various texts have to be supplemented considerably if a comprehensive treatment is desired.

As was mentioned above, it is often desirable to treat style organically with the invention and arrangement of different modes or aims. Style then does not take on the ornamental association that a separate treatment can imply (on the shell versus the organic view of style, see Kinneavy, A Theory of Discourse, p. 358, for references).

In the organic view, there are many styles, with varying degrees of propriety given subject matter, audience, aim, and situational and cultural contexts. For a view of style parallel to the aims or uses of writing advanced by Winterowd, see Kinneavy, A Theory of Discourse, 168-179 for scientific, 179-186 for informative, 186-194 for exploratory, 275-290 for persuasive, 428-444 for expressive.

For a very readable treatment of some important stylistic issues (accompanied by many examples), see John Trimble, Writing With Style, (Prentice-Hall, 1974).

References on Syntax and Style

Christensen, F. 1967. Notes toward a new rhetoric. New York: Harper and Row.

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LaBrant, Lou L. "Changing Sentence Structure of Children," Elementary English Review, II (March, 1934), 59-65, 85-86.

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THE FINAL EXAMINATION

Last year, as the result of an inquiry from the office of the Dean of the College of Humanities, the Freshman English Policy Committee reconsidered the stand it had taken the year before, allowing for optional final examinations. Although the Committee did not reverse this stand, it did feel that some statement should be made in the syllabus about the final examination.

The basic reason for the 1975 position making the examination optional was the desire of the Committee to bring the policy of Freshman English into agreement with the general University policy. The Committee recognizes the right of teachers to structure their courses differently, with varying techniques of grading. Since the course already requires a minimum of nine themes, a final examination for the purpose of a grading function as such does not carry much weight as an argument.

However, the intention of the Committee never was to abolish out of hand the final examination. As a matter of fact, in a questionnaire last year, it was revealed that by far the vast majority of teachers still preferred to retain the final examination.

The advantages of a final examination are not to be discounted. And a quick review of some of them, especially as they relate to English 306 particularly, might be of some use.

One of the reactions from several quarters of the University community (including a member of the administration) was that it seemed anomalous that freshman English, charged as it was with teaching people how to take essay final examinations, should itself have no final examination. If one accepts this as one of the objectives of the course (last year's Freshman English Policy Committee was divided on this issue), the argument seems plausible. However, since little feedback to the student usually is given the student after the final exam (except a grade), it would seem better to assign some exam-like quizzes during the course so that the student could learn from them rather than waiting for a no-feedback final.

The English 307 syllabus is specifically written with a planned orientation to the final exam. However, English 306, though progressively more difficult, is not so organized. The increasing complexity of Units I through IX does make it possible for one of the three last theme units (explanation, exploration, cause-effect) to incorporate many of the preceding skills and material. This is more true of the composition skills and of the rhetoric than of the handbook assignments.

This progression thus makes it possible to assign an explanation, or exploration, or cause-effect theme as a final exam that would draw on most of the major resources of the course.

The same line of argument, however, also makes it possible for one of these final themes itself to count for a final exam. However, there are several advantages which a final in-class examination possesses over such a substitution. In the first place it can make the student achieve a unification of the separate elements of the course in a conscious way. This is true of the composition skills, the rhetorical components, and the handbook mechanics. Giving a separate set of questions on the rhetorical principles forces the student to read the text throughout the course and

ADDENDUM TO THE E306 SYLLABUS--1977-78 NEW HANDBOOK REFERENCES

Because the handbook was changed this year to The Modern English Handbook, the chapter listings at the beginning of each unit of the syllabus must be replaced by new references. The following listings will have to be followed by those teaching E306. The few classes who chose to use the new rhetoric, The Writing Commitment, must also adapt its sequence to the syllabus.

UNIT I.

Chapter 9 Sentence Rhetoric: Basic Patterns, especially 9b
Chapter 20 Unnecessary Punctuation, Sec. 20k

UNIT II.

Chapter 20 Fused Sentence and Comma Fault or Splice, Sec. 20b
Chapter 15 Dialect, Usage, and "Correctness", Sec. 15g

UNIT III.

Chapter 12 Agreement or Concord, Sec. 12e

UNIT IV.

Chapter 4 Materials for Development
Chapter 20 Punctuation: Quotation Marks, Sec. 20g
Chapter 11 Developing Sentences: Coordination, Subordination, especially Sec. 11a, Parallelism and Coordination

UNIT V.

Chapter 11 Developing Sentences: Coordination, Subordination, especially Sec. 11d, Modifiers and Word Order
Chapter 8 Reasoned Writing, especially Sec. 8b Evidence: Induction

UNIT VI.

Chapter 12 Coherence in Sentences: Function Words, Reference, Agrreement, especially Sec. 12c Pronoun Reference
Chapter 8 Reasoned Writing, especially Sec. 8c Deduction

UNIT VII.

Chapter 7 Coherence
Chapter 3 Commitment and Response: The Paragraph

UNIT VIII.

Chapter 10 Prediction: Pattern Variations, especially Sec.10c
Consistency in Structure: Shifts and Sec 10e
The Passive

ADDENDUM TO THE E306 SYLLABUS--1977-78 NEW TEXTBOOK [illegible]

Because the handbook was changed this year to *The Harbrace English Handbook*, the chapter listings at the beginning of each unit of the *syllabus* must be replaced by new references. The following listings [illegible] be followed by those teaching E306. The few classes who [illegible] the new rhetoric, *The Writing Commitment*, must also [illegible] the references to the syllabus.

UNIT I.

Chapter [illegible] Sentence Rhetoric: Basic Patterns, especially [illegible]
Chapter 20 Unnecessary Punctuation Sec. 20k

UNIT II.

Chapter 21 Fused Sentence and Comma Fault or Splice, Sec. 20b
Chapter [illegible] Dialect, Usage, and Correctness, Sec. [illegible]

UNIT III.

Chapter 12 Agreement or Concord, Sec. 1e

UNIT IV.

Chapter [illegible] Materials for Development
Chapter 19 Punctuation: Punctuation Marks, Sec. 19g
Chapter 11 Developing Sentences: Coordination, Subordination, especially Sec. 11a, Parallelism and Coordination

UNIT V.

Chapter 11 Developing Sentences: Coordination, Subordination, especially Sec. 11[illegible], Modifiers and Word Order
Chapter 8 Reasoned Writing, especially Sec. 8b Inference, Induction

UNIT VI.

Chapter 12 Coherence in Sentences: Function Words, Reference, Agreement, especially Sec. 12c Pronoun Reference
Chapter 8 Reasoned Writing, especially Sec. 8c Deduction

UNIT VII.

Chapter 7 Coherence
Chapter [illegible] Constituent and Response: The Paragraph

UNIT VIII.

Chapter 1[illegible] Predication: Pattern Variations, especially Sec. 12c
Consistency in Structure [illegible] and Sec 10e
The Passive