This chapter emphasizes the modes as facets of a larger thinking process called “argument.” It provides examples that enable you to:

- Construct a productive question
- Identify vital background issues, facts, and ideas
- Recognize and use appropriate evidence
- Name the connections between the claim and evidence
- Recognize opportunities to add insights, judgments, and corrections to the existing map of a topic
- Use a variety of modes to produce a thoughtful, evidence-based argument.

You drive down a highway, and through the back window of a pickup truck, you see a shotgun hanging on a rack. On the glass is a bumper sticker that says, “I’ll Give Up My Gun When They Pry It Out of My Cold Dead Fingers.” Riding with you is your sister. She adjusts her paisley skirt, pushes her granny glasses up on her nose, nibbles on some granola, and says, “Guns are for murder.” As you ride along behind the truck, you are secretly happy that the driver of the pickup and your sister are in separate vehicles. They have each reached a conclusion, and neither wants to hear the other. If they spoke to each other, it would become a shouting match, and no one would think differently about guns after the shouting had stopped. Such arguments are common in daily life.
A writer’s meaning of “argument” is much different from the kind of argument we see in daily life. It does not involve shouting. It does not involve concepts such as “true” or “false,” and it does not use “either-or” thinking. The word may look the same, but the meaning of “argument” is different when it is used to describe argumentative writing. Writers have a meaning for “argument” that requires them to stand back from the situation and ask a simple question: “What is this question really about?”

Let’s return to the argument about guns. Some people say that they are bad; others say owning guns is a right. Some say guns provide protection; others say they are more risky than protective. Some say that gun ownership is a constitutional right; others say it is a right of state militias. The list of differences is a long one. The differences do not produce much insight, but instead, produce simplistic thinking. A thoughtful writer would approach the question of guns in America through a different type of argument. A writer would begin by mapping out what others are saying about guns. Using the TEQ Sheets would be a handy way to keep track of how others think.

Once the map of the various viewpoints has emerged, the good writer will ask an important question: “What key ideas are being ignored?” Using the Purpose & Problem Statement simplifies this task, but the task itself begins by asking about the questions and answers that others already use to limit the topic. In combination with the TEQ Sheet, the writer is ready to offer a new way to think about an issue that seems central to American life. This new way of thinking will make everyone stop and re-think the topic. A good argumentative paper stops the shouting.
Where in Your World is Argument?

Arguments make the case for a new insight. They use evidence and rely on logical strategies that clearly connect the claim and the evidence. Arguments are complex, and they require the use of a variety of modes. This mixing of modes clarifies existing insights, discovers needed improvements, and then offers an improved map of the topic. Such explanations are commonly part of the following:

In Daily Life
- We make arguments to construct effective political campaigns
- We assess advertisements by identifying their arguments
- We argue for the dismissal of a traffic ticket

At Work
- We argue when we ask for a raise or promotion
- We make an argument when we propose a new product or service
- We create an argument to select between competing designs

At School
- We use argument to construct a diagnosis from a patient’s symptoms
- We argue when we build a case study in business
- We argue when we make the case for a job, scholarship, or internship

What is the Question Really About?

In the case of gun control, a writer might compare how different nations, different social groups, and different genders think about gun control. The writer might develop a narrative chronology that explains the history of different views of gun control. The writer might ask about the politics of groups that support or oppose gun control. In short, a good writer will put the simple good-bad question into a bigger context. The result is likely to be new and better questions:
• What do the shifts in attitudes toward gun control tell us about masculinity in America?
• Do issues about gun control emerge during times of social unrest in America?
• If so, what kinds of social change make the issue important?

In some ways, this is similar to the “zooming out” process discussed in the Cause and Effect chapter. In this case, the writer stands back (“zooms out”) to see that the opposites are really part of a bigger issue. These bigger issues might include American nostalgia for a rural history, conflicting notions of masculinity, or the proper relationship between individual rights and legal control.

**Questions about Argumentation**

Are arguments just attempts to persuade readers of a viewpoint?

Arguments *can* be attempts to persuade readers that a single viewpoint is correct and that different viewpoints are wrong. For a very simple question like “Is it a good idea to sleep in the fast lane of an expressway?” there is probably some value to persuading readers that it is a bad idea. Of course, almost no one needs such simple advice, and those who do probably need help with a number of more basic issues.

Which modes are most useful when writing an argument?

Good arguments frequently mix modes. When evidence is necessary, they use illustration or description. When differences need to be explained, they use comparison. When the “why” of a viewpoint needs clarification, they use cause and effect. The modes are useful tools for constructing the argument. The modes become techniques that help the writer “make the case” for its way of understanding a topic.

Does “persuade” have a special meaning in argumentative papers?

Logos (appealing to logic), Ethos (referring to expertise and values), and Pathos (appealing to emotions) are tools that make an insight acceptable. In argumentative writing, “persuasion” means the use of these tools to make an argument valid.
Do arguments disprove other viewpoints?

A worthwhile topic can have a history with many viewpoints, but the writer’s job is to analyze their value. Good argumentative writing often says that an existing viewpoint is helpful, but it needs to be modified. Sometimes a good argumentative paper says an existing viewpoint is not valuable, but the error is about something that matters. There is no real point in rejecting or “disproving” a viewpoint. Even a flawed idea points us toward a better insight. Along the way, errors in the existing map need to be identified, but those errors are part of the boundary of what needs to be explored.

Does an argument use evidence?

Readers usually ask, “How do you know this is true?” when they read a writer’s claim. Without evidence, the writer has to admit that the document does not connect with the ideas and evidence of others. Without evidence, one of the major legs (the Logos) of an argument is missing. Some arguments seem good when first read, but they start to crumble because they lack the evidence that creates legitimate claims. Sometimes evidence takes the form of a quotation from an expert (Ethos), sometimes as facts and data (Logos), and sometimes as an emotionally moving description (Pathos). These techniques enable the reader to accept the claim.

Does an argumentative paper have to use quotation and a works cited page?

Argument papers often use quotation. “Building the case” for an insight means connecting the writer’s ideas to the ideas and evidence of experts. In many magazines, newspapers, and high quality general publications, the source of the quotation appears only in the text of the paper. There is seldom a Works Cited page. On the other hand, a university paper, a researched document, or scholarship has to have full documentation.

Does an argumentative essay end discussion?

A good paper never ends discussion. Writers have an ethical obligation to recognize that no one’s language -- not even their own -- can fully re-present an issue. Thus, the ethical writer makes it clear that the next writer will also discover blanks in the map.
Arguments “make the case” for an idea. The writer organizes the argument with the help of logic, arrives at conclusions with their help, and checks the drafts to make sure that the claim is legitimate. Readers then question what they have read by checking the logic of the document. Everyone involved in the argument has to recognize the logic of its strategies.

**Inductive Reasoning**

Most reasoning begins with an observation. Something happens, and the observer connects it to similar events. As these connections develop into a pattern, the observer makes a general rule. An induction moves from a sample to a general rule. This process of moving from the specific to the general is called “induction.” In everyday life, induction is a legitimate, practical tool for making sense out of events. For example, you might have noticed that every fish you have seen lives in water. From this observation of some fish, you might arrive at a general rule: “all fish live in water.” If the sampled fish share some feature, we can safely induce a rule.

The problem with inductive reasoning is that it is impossible to know all cases. There is always the possibility that an exception exists. For example, a hiker in India might find a strange catfish walking on its fins down a pathway. The general rule (all fish live in water) starts to crumble. In its place, a new rule is required: “all fish except walking catfish live in water.” The possibility of exceptions leads to a focus on statistics: “Given that 99.99% of fish can live only in water, and given any random fish, the chance of it being able to live only in water is 99.99%.” Statistical methods deal with the fact that no description can be complete, but that we can be more (or less) confident about a general rule through the use of mathematics.
Who uses induction? Induction is the method of the sciences. Careful observation and record-keeping enable scientists to identify important cases that tell about more general ideas. Scientists live with the fact that their arguments about fish, physics, dinosaurs, chemistry, and all the rest will probably shift as new anomalies -- the walking catfishes of the world -- appear. This view of argument as a “best effort” is very different from other types of reasoning. Scientists do not say that their findings are “true” or that they have “proven” something. They seldom even say that something is a “fact.” Their language reflects the fact that inductive reasoning relies on the use of specific cases to make a general rule, and that anomalous cases seem to always appear.

**Deductive Reasoning and the Big “If”**

Deductive reasoning is more formal than inductive reasoning. Think of the following deduction. It is an example of a syllogism:

- All humans are mortal. [the major premise]
- Socrates is a human. [the minor premise]
- Socrates is mortal. [conclusion]

The fit between the major premise (“All humans are mortal”) and the minor premise (“Socrates is a human”) creates the conclusion. The reader has to accept the major premise; it is not questioned within the syllogism. Thus, there is no way for the first term (the “premise”) to be true and the conclusion to be false. A deduction that has an accurate premise and an accurate conclusion is called “sound.” Again, the major premise is not questioned.

Syllogisms can be perplexing because they can contain factual errors that make them “false” in one sense, but which nonetheless are logically consistent. If the premise is not accurate, then the conclusion might not be accurate . . . but the logic is still sound. Consider the following example:

- Everyone who sings opera is Italian.
- Bernadette Greevy sings opera.
- Bernadette Greevy is Italian.
In this example, the premise is not accurate because many nationalities sing opera. Bernadette Greevy is Irish, not Italian. The conclusion is not accurate. Nonetheless, this syllogism is still *logically valid* because the logical system is consistent. However, it is not called *sound* because it is not accurate. Deductive logic raises many interesting questions about arguments that are well built, but which are nonetheless inaccurate.

Why do syllogisms matter? They matter because they let readers and writers examine an argument on two levels: first, in terms of a very abstract form of logic, and second, in terms of the factual materials that make up the content. Syllogisms remind us that a good argument has both a form and a content.

**Logical Fallacies**

If logic matters, then it is helpful to know how it can be misused. As a writer, you will want to recognize such errors in the material you read as you prepare your document. Illogical arguments from others can contaminate your own thinking and writing. They lead to mistakes on your part, but worse yet, they mislead others. They may seem to work, but in the end they show that you have not been a careful thinker. Some common misuses of logic include the following:

*Argumentum ad hominem* (referring to a male) and **argumentum ad feminem** (referring to a female) Judging a claim in terms of some irrelevant aspect of the person making the claim.

Imagine that an architect says that the Taj Mahal is a historically important example of Mughal architecture. A writer disputes this by arguing, “The claim is wrong because the architect was arrested for illegal possession of alcohol when he was 12 years old.” The childhood arrest has no connection to the expertise required for the judgment about the Taj Mahal. This logical error relies on a misuse of ethos. It is a common strategy in political campaigns.
Post hoc reasoning

This fallacy claims that if one event happens after another event, then the second event is caused by the first one. See the Cause and Effect chapter for information on the difference between chronology (time sequence) and causation. This type of thinking leads to superstitious beliefs:

Imagine that a black cat crosses your path. Three weeks later, you receive a “D” on a mathematics test. “Ah,” you say, “I flunked because I saw that cat.” The poor performance on the test followed the sighting of the black cat. There is no evidence to show that the black cat caused the “D.” Such errors typically fail to identify the steps between the cause and the effect. Perhaps you failed because you had not studied.

False Dilemma

An argument that says that there are only two choices. Other choices are not recognized.

High school students are frequently asked to argue either “for” or “against” an idea: gun control, abortion, national health insurance, etc. These assignments invite either-or thinking. The assignment is almost an invitation to use a false dilemma. For example, instead of thinking about the role of guns in American notions of violence, control, masculinity, and other issues, the student argues that gun control is “good” or “bad.” The argument does not reflect the range of alternatives or the nature of the topic.

Red Herring

A clue, fact, or claim that is meant to distract the reader from the real issue.

An argument about tax increases should develop evidence and insight about the needs of citizens and the costs of meeting those needs. To discuss the American Colonist’s “no taxation without representation” is a red herring because the revolution is over, and taxation is governed by a representative government. The red herring is simply an emotional ploy that leads the reader astray.

Good arguments use good evidence within a logical framework. A good argument recognizes that new information will emerge and that the context for the claim will shift. Thus, a good
argument keeps the question open for other writers. Good readers are wary of writers who claim to be certain, and good writers honestly make their case with modesty.

Evidence and Argument

A writer who is new to a subject will often see it in simple terms. The topic will not be connected to other issues that affect its meaning, and huge chunks of evidence may still be invisible to the writer. The result is a paper that does not use the kind of evidence that can connect the existing map of the field to the new one. Good writers know the existing map, and they use it as evidence.

Confirmation bias

Writers come to most arguments with a set of beliefs about the subject. They search for information, build evidence, and ask questions. Unfortunately, there is a tendency to select and prefer information that agrees with these biases. If the subject is an emotional one, the beliefs are even more likely to influence our judgments about what is important. We seek things that confirm our biases. Despite massive evidence to the contrary, some people believe women are poor drivers. Someone who holds such beliefs pays more attention to a woman who speeds than to a middle-aged white man who runs a busload of children off a cliff.

Circular reasoning

Circular reasoning avoids the use of evidence. For example, if a writer says, “Horses are mammals because the category of mammals includes horses,” the reasoning is circular. If the list of equivalent statements is long, the circular reasoning is harder to detect. For example, “Horses are mammals, a sub-division of the vertebrates, because not only are they not plants or invertebrates, but they are named as part of that group because they are mammals.” What this says it that horses are mammals because horses are mammals. It’s really a list disguised as evidence.
Begging the Question

Sometimes, a writer argues a point by using the claim as evidence. She or he is so sure that the conclusion is correct that it is treated as evidence. Many times, this happens by assuming that the dictionary meaning of a word is evidence. For example, a writer might claim that “democracy is good because it is government by those governed.” In this case, there is no evidence. It assumes that “government by those governed” is a good thing, when that is exactly what needs to be demonstrated. The word “because” connects two phrases -- “democracy” and “government by those governed” -- that mean the same thing. There is no evidence.

Faulty Analogy

Analogies are extended comparisons. For example, we can explain the atom by comparing the orbits of electrons around the nucleus to the orbits of the planets around the sun. Sometimes this is useful. The analogy is not part of an argument, but it does help clarify the structure of atoms. Other times it is misleading. For example, a parent complained that giving condoms to students as part of a sex education program that included abstinence was “like giving them cigarettes and telling them not to smoke.” The logical weakness lies in the analogy between condoms and cigarettes. Condoms prevent disease; cigarettes cause disease. The analogy fails.

Weasel Words

Advertisements often claim that a product “may” do something or might “help” solve a problem. The advertisement has to claim some value to the product or service, but the terms enable the statements to avoid responsibility. Medications, painkillers, vitamins, and other over-the-counter products often rely on such non-promises. The vague language reflects the legal regulation of claims, but it also reflects the failure of the products to produce reliable results.
Lying with Numbers

Most people rely on statistics. Scientific studies usually require them, medical diagnoses and treatments are based on statistical studies. America’s huge polling industry attempts to predict the future with careful samples of the population that are statistically analyzed. On the other hand, bad arguments and devious writers misuse statistics. Think of an argument that says a textbook “increased student success by 600%.” Another book “increased success by 20%.” The difference means nothing unless we know the following:

- the size of the two groups
- the initial success rate of the two groups
- the definition of “student success”
- the similarities and differences of the students in the two groups
- the biases of the people conducting the study
- the consequences of the results for those conducting the study

A statistician could explain how each item needs to be clarified. For example, the book that shows a “600%” improvement might be measuring an increase from one student in a hundred to six students in one hundred. Neither figure is very high. On the other hand, the book that showed a “20%” improvement might have increased the success rate of another class from fifty in one hundred to sixty in one hundred. The lower percentage actually reflects a higher number of students with a benefit. To summarize: statistics are central to honest claims, but they are frequently abused by the ignorant and the devious.

Anecdotal Evidence

Sometimes, a single event or a handful of events is used to justify a belief. Such small samples are called “anecdotal.” They are stories that vividly imply an idea is true. Dramatic examples persuade readers; they are little narratives, and narratives are powerful. A robber is killed by a homeowner, and a friend claims that the story proves that we are safer when we are armed.
However, statistics show that guns are more dangerous to their owners than are robbers, especially because children frequently find guns and play with them. The story is dramatic, but it is only a single case that can be dismantled with evidence and logic.

**KEY TERMS**

A good argument relies on the skillful adaptation of the modes to the bigger aim of the document. Although an argument uses the modes, some words commonly signal that the writer is making the case for an idea. The terms that commonly indicate an argument include:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>argues that</th>
<th>implies</th>
<th>suggests</th>
<th>develops</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>claims</td>
<td>opens the question</td>
<td>furthermore</td>
<td>neither</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>by contrast</td>
<td>alternatively</td>
<td>on the other hand</td>
<td>nevertheless</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These terms show that the writer is playing a specific role. The argumentative writer has a specific persona. This persona opens questions, balances evidence, respects difference, creates tentative conclusions, and relies on the careful use of logic. However, the persona has a distinct view of the subject. It asserts a clear view of the topic that adds to what is already known. These new insights are the claim of the document, and without a claim, the paper is not an argument.

**Putting Argument to Work**

1. Imagine that one of your classmates has only written simple pro-con papers. He has been “for” or “against” a number of big issues. Your classmate now has to write an argumentative paper about the real issues that make some educators hostile to *Wikipedia*. How can your classmate avoid a simplistic pro/con paper?

2. Your Introduction to Nursing course has been looking at the anti-vaccination movement in the United States. You have noted two key terms in the discussions and readings: “statistical significance” and “anecdotal evidence.” What is the difference between these, and how would the two terms help you explain the hostility between the medical community and the anti-vaccination people?
3. Suppose that you have been asked to write an argument about gun control. Review the examples and discussion in this chapter about that issue and write a short paragraph about gun control that avoids becoming a pro/con argument by naming larger, background issues in American culture.

**WRITING TO LEARN: USING THE MAP METAPHOR IN ARGUMENTATIVE PAPERS**

The following paper successfully uses TEQ Sheets, a Purpose and Problem Statement, and a Prospectus to build a careful argument about online life. The paper focuses on ideas about identity. It argues that search engines, social networking sites, news sources, and other digital tools can narrow our thinking by filtering out information that does not agree with what we already think. Review the meaning of the “filter bubble,” by watching Eli Pariser’s TED Talk on the subject. The student’s paper responds to the following question:

**THE ASSIGNMENT:** Create a 5-8 page “miniature” research paper by using the tools, techniques, research strategies, and other information in this online textbook. Points: 25% for TEQ Sheets, 25% for Purpose & Problem, 25% for Prospectus, 25% for paper.

**So Far:**
We have used Twitter, blogs, and other online tools to follow writers who are thinking about the filter bubble. Eli Pariser uses the term to describe how websites track what a user does. The websites track online behavior to profile each user’s interests, beliefs, and tastes. The next time the user searches for something, the website uses the profile to offer information that agrees with what the surfer already thinks. So what? The consequence is that search engines tend to show only information which agrees with the user’s past viewpoint, effectively isolating the user in a bubble that excludes contrary information.
So Now:
Your job is to make an argument about the filter bubble. Choose ONE of the following for your paper:

1. Examine how the filter bubble might affect your future experience in the work place. For example, a nurse might argue that patients are likely to have beliefs shaped by the biases built into their online searches about illnesses, and that a good nurse has to have tactics for helping patients analyze professional knowledge. The paper must have a claim that makes the reader’s understanding of the filter bubble more complex.

2. Examine how the filter bubble simplifies or distorts some aspect of human behavior that is especially valuable. Argue for the importance of an issue that is distorted by the filter bubble.

Remember: you must come to some conclusion about the filter bubble that is NOT a pro/con analysis. What is problematic about the filter bubble, and what does it let us think about that is usually hidden? Does the work you have done make you more skeptical of the idea, or does it seem to confirm some of the things discussed in class?

Terms, Expectations, & Questions (TEQ) Sheets

The classroom discussions and examples had given students a clear idea of the filter bubble. Many used YouTube, Twitter, Facebook, and other online sources to find background information about the topic. The class agreed that they were doing a documented paper, and that they needed to know what others had been thinking about the topic. Students shared links, discussed issues, and identified problems during class. They agreed that a good map of existing knowledge was important. They began building the map with their TEQ Sheets.
One student, Ashleigh, created her own map of the topic with thirteen careful TEQ Sheets. Her sources ranged from YouTube videos to a chapter in a book. Each of them was useful, but two in particular show the value of building a careful map of information that might matter:

**Sample TEQ Sheet #1**

Ashleigh began by looking at a video of Eli Pariser explaining filter bubbles. She had seen the video in class, but she decided a second viewing was necessary:

**Terms/Expectations/Questions: THE TEQ SHEET**

**Complete Citation:**

**Terms and Phrases**

To make its claim, the source uses important concepts. These organize the evidence and make sense out of it. **Identify** four key terms or phrases that are especially important to the source’s claim. **Explain** why each is important to the source’s claim.

1. **Personalization**: people getting different search results tailored to their interests, beliefs, and values. This seems to be the mechanism/method that leads Pariser to see bigger issues. Personalization is the result of more powerful forces, for example, gatekeepers.

2. **Filter bubble**: personalization produces a filter bubble, that is, a set of information sources that only reflect your past beliefs and interests. Personalization produces a filter bubble. Pariser sees the filter bubble as getting in the way of a complex understanding of issues. He seems to want people to consider lots of viewpoints.
3. Algorithms: these are the rules/programs/processes that are used to handle a problem. They’re not necessarily bad, but if we can’t see them, they can offer a limited range of choices that don’t encourage us to question what we see, read, or hear.

4. Gatekeeper: the person, algorithm, or other force that keeps out some information, allows other information into our world. Gatekeepers are a general term for the kinds of selections that must be made if we’re going to have any knowledge. The idea reminds us that all information is incomplete, and that all information has choices behind it.

**Expectations**

Readers already have beliefs about a topic even more they start reading. It is important to recognize the difference between what we expected and what the document says. The difference between what we expect and we read can identify unexplained territories that are worth writing about. List four ideas, facts or other features from the source that surprised you. How was each different from what you expected?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Surprising Elements</th>
<th>What You Expected to Read</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Search engines produce different results for different users depending on their history of past choices (their previous clicks).</td>
<td>I thought a search for a term would give the same results to anyone using the term.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Facebook account can be changed by Facebook rather than by the user.</td>
<td>My belief was that I controlled the content of my account, and that Facebook was a sort of service that did what I wanted it to do.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Pariser ends by saying that algorithms have to become more open, but he doesn’t really discuss how algorithms (like any gatekeeper) MUST have values and beliefs behind them. He downplays the bias of the old system of editors. By the end of the video, I expected that Pariser would condemn all gatekeepers as systems for controlling freedom of thought.

Pariser seems to know the head of Google and other big corporations. How can a critic of their power also be their “friend?” I expected that the leaders of organizations such as Google wouldn’t have anything to do with somebody like Pariser.

### Questions

After you have carefully reviewed the source, ask useful questions whose answer might become your claim. These questions should address the source’s assumptions, evidence, thesis, or issues that it ignores.

1. What online behavior do algorithms track? What online choices tell the most about who we are when we’re online? Does personalization take different forms for different groups of people? How does it work?

2. Filtering and personalization seem necessary to produce useful results even when they’re not biased results. How can filtering/personalization ever be neutral? Is the idea of neutrality a false concept?

3. Who am I when I’m online? I’m not sure that there’s a “me” that’s the same “me” as when I’m doing other things. Do people have lots of identities? How does this affect the judgment of personalization and filter bubbles as dangerous or not?
Ashleigh’s questions already recognize that an important issue has been uncovered. In another sheet, she records her insights and questions about a book written by Eli Pariser. The example below is her response to a journal article written by Sherry Turkle. Turkle is a scholar at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT).

**Sample TEQ Sheet #2**

**Terms/Expectations/Questions: THE TEQ SHEET**

**Complete Citation:**

**Terms and Phrases**

To make its claim, the source uses important concepts. These organize the evidence and make sense out of it. **Identify** four key terms or phrases that are especially important to the source’s claim. **Explain** why each is important to the source’s claim.

1. **Identity**: this is a problematic term. Sometimes, it seems to mean the essence of what somebody is. Whatever it is that makes us unique. It seems to be a psychological concept and related to the idea that there is an individual. Turkle asks about the connections between the different identities we seem to have.

2. **Role-play**: to role-play is to act as if you’re somebody else. Turkle uses the term to think about the types of identities we have and how we should think about their relationships.

3. **Virtual Persona**: When we’re online, we’re “virtual” (as opposed to “virtuous”). Does this persona just disappear when we exit a program?

4. **Social**: networks of people (individuals?????) who are interacting in some way. Turkle makes me wonder if the idea of the individual is an illusion.
Expectations

Readers already have beliefs about a topic even more they start reading. It is important to recognize the difference between what we expected and what the document says. The difference between what we expect and we read can identify unexplained territories that are worth writing about. List four ideas, facts or other features from the source that surprised you. How was each different from what you expected?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Surprising Elements</th>
<th>What You Expected to Read</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Many people role-play online to express often unexplored aspects of the self.</td>
<td>I expect to hear that we have a single identity, and that we express it online.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For many, joining online communities means crossing a boundary into highly charged territory.</td>
<td>Using social media is the same as the rest of our lives. The technology is different, but the content is the same.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The notion of a de-centered identity was conceived by experiences on a computer screen.</td>
<td>Again, I expected to hear that the “computer screen” reflects the regular life that we’re used to living.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online personas can be revised to become more aware of what we project onto everyday life.</td>
<td>Our “self” is stable. It can’t really be revised except over long periods of time.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Questions**

After you have carefully reviewed the source, ask useful questions whose answer might become your claim. These questions should address the source’s assumptions, evidence, thesis, or issues that it ignores.

1. Why do people feel the need to try out new identities when they go online? Even if it is not always the case, it seems common. Is this evidence for some sort of “unconscious”?

2. I suppose that psychologists know how the “self” develops from childhood to adult life. It has steps. What are the steps in the development of an online self? Are they really part of the same thing? Does the development of the self ever stop?

3. Who am I when I’m online? I’m not sure that there’s a “me” that’s the same “me” as when I’m doing other things. Do people have lots of identities? How does this affect the judgment of personalization and filter bubbles as dangerous or not?

These two examples illustrate how Ashleigh maps the knowledge of others. She is a careful reader who pays attention to key terms and important issues. She asks excellent questions. Remember that she prepared eleven other TEQ Sheets for her argumentative paper.

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**Sample Purpose & Problem Statement**

Purpose & Problem Statements help writers organize their work. By recognizing the aim of the class and the assignment, the writer stays on track. Throughout her P&P Statement, Ashleigh focuses on how she will connect her ideas to the ideas of others.
**Purposes**

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>The goal of this writing course is to prepare students for the kinds of writing we will be asked to produce in our professional and academic lives. We will write essays that require responses to other writing and which emphasize analyzing the arguments of others. To do this, we will use different rhetorical modes because the modes are connected to critical thinking. We will think of writing as making a map. First, we will map out the existing knowledge of others; second, we will discover important aspects of the topic that have been ignored or which need better explanation. Once we have discovered this “blank spot” in the map, we’ll re-draw the map of the topic by writing a paper with our own claim that is connected to what is already known. We don’t rant, and we don’t just stitch together other people’s ideas.</th>
<th>By reviewing how the course is organized, Ashleigh reminds herself of the importance of the modes and the tools that can help put them to work in an argument.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>We will practice the mapping steps to create an insight about the way search engines, social media, and other digital tools keep us from seeing information that doesn’t agree with what we already think. The problem of “not seeing” information is the focus of the assignment, but it also sounds like the problem this class emphasizes: the need to see what has been ignored. This has to do with filling in the blank spots on the map of the topic. The professor keeps emphasizing that we need our own claim to make the paper effective.</td>
<td>She recognizes that the content of the assignment is connected to the purpose of the course. She reminds herself that her own improvements, additions, and corrections to existing knowledge are necessary.</td>
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Problems

Learning about filter bubbles has left me perplexed and with questions. How can search engines guess what is best suited for the particular user? Filter bubbles give users their own virtual identity, but our identities are much more complex than our previous searches. Can algorithms compensate for our different identities and personalities? I also think that the context of the search is very important, but I don’t think algorithms take that into account either. The concept of filter bubbles appears to be problematic, and I believe they may reduce individuality.

The key terms and ideas from the TEQ Sheet lead to a general question that is Ashleigh’s unique perspective on the subject. By keeping this question in mind, she will be able to produce a strong Prospectus that includes both key ideas and important evidence.

Sample Prospectus

The TEQ Sheets map the existing knowledge of the topic. The Purpose & Problem Statement identifies an important question that leads to an improvement of the map. The Prospectus is the writer’s first attempt to answer her/his own question. It often develops the writer’s new idea, and it usually refers to important work by other experts by using key terms, shared ideas, and quotations. In an argumentative paper, the references are not necessarily quotations. They can be quotations, but the more important issue is that the writer show that the argument is connected to a network of careful thinking by others. Those others can be classmates, instructors, published scholarship, performers, artists, et al.
The Internet has become a part of many people’s everyday lives. It provides instant access to information and to social networking sites. Because the Internet is so popular and so many people use it, a simple search can generate a user thousands, even millions, of hits. This information overload is overwhelming and takes too much time to sort through. Differentiating what’s useful from what is not becomes impossible. To compensate for the extensive amount of online data, filtering has been done by search engines and other online websites. These algorithms are custom personalized for the user so that fewer hits are generated and so that the information the users receive is the information they wanted. However, this personalized filtering quickly traps users in their own filter bubbles. A filter bubble is what people start living in once the search engines start feeding information that’s tailored to the individual. Although the filtering and filter bubbles are necessary to prevent information overload, filter bubbles appear to be a problematic issue.

Filter bubbles are created from algorithms, which use past searches to control future search results. Even though the information is specifically tailored for the user, the users cannot customize what makes it into their filter bubble and what does not. Eli Pariser, in *The Filter Bubble: What the Internet is Hiding from You*, notes that personalized algorithms are so complex that their own programmers can’t even determine what information will be output. If the designers cannot predict what information the users will receive, how reliable can the interpretation of a computer be?

Ashleigh’s Prospectus begins by identifying a problem: the vast amount of information available through the Internet. It then identifies two seemingly opposite needs: the need to filter out irrelevant information, and the need to see material that goes beyond our current biases. The meaning of “relevant” seems problematic. This is the most general version of the claim.

The Prospectus names key scholars who have already discussed the issue. This strengthens the ethos of the Prospectus and provides a framework to which the claim of the paper will connect.
Search engines and other networking sites use the information users have searched to create the users own online identity. While this private sense of personalization may seem nice, there is so much more to a person’s identity than what they have searched a few times. An identity is made up of many traits; so many, that people themselves may not even be aware of some of them. Our sense of self is always evolving, with continuous and discontinuous aspects. Algorithms create a single identity for the user, but we are much more complex than that. There are multiple identities inside a single person, and a computer algorithm cannot pick up on that.

Another problematic issue with filter bubbles and personalization is the inability to compute the context of the search. If I search the advantages of abortion, my filter bubble will trap me with an identity that supports abortion. However, the algorithm has no way of knowing that I am completely against it, and that I made that search for a research paper. Our identities also have different feelings about different contexts. Algorithms don’t know why searches are being made, but they will characterize the user’s identity according to them. In doing so, it’s possible the algorithm could feed the users the information they wanted, but they can also misrepresent them completely.

The Prospectus takes the first paragraph’s general idea about the conflicts between the need to filter and the dangers of confirmation bias. This sharpens the focus on identity. The Prospectus notes that the paper can make an argument about different ideas of identity. Is identity a single thing? Do we have multiple identities? Have digital media created new kinds of identity?

This paragraph extends the work of the preceding one. It continues to sketch out ideas, and in this case, it even offers an example that might be developed in the paper itself. Note that it has a further development of the claim at the end. Thus, even in the Prospectus, the claim develops.
Identity is not a fixed subject; we act differently under different circumstances and with different people. As Sherry Turkle, a professor at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, puts it in the journal *Contemporary Sociology*, “the self no longer simply plays different roles in different settings—something that people experience when, for example, one wakes up as a lover, makes breakfast as a mother, and drives to work as a lawyer” (644). The multitude of identities extends to the virtual world, as well. You can be whoever you want to be online, and many people take this as a chance to discover or project different aspects of the self with identity play. Just like in country artist Brad Paisley’s song, “Online,” people perceive you how you want to be perceived. Turkle also notes, “Identity, from the Latin *idem*, has been used habitually to refer to the sameness between two qualities. On the Internet, however, one can be many, and one usually is,” (645). Algorithms don’t pick up on this though. They analyze the search, and don’t take any of this into consideration. The concept of identity and self is much too complex for a computer algorithm to accurately compute.

The Prospectus concludes with an overview of the previous paragraphs. It strengthens its connection to established knowledge with the quotations from Turkle. The combination of pop culture reference with scholarly reference implies that the claim has widespread importance.

### Writing to Communicate: The First Full Draft

Ashleigh’s draft (below) is excellent. It respects the assignment, uses a pivot structure, relies on credible sources, paper uses the ideas, examples, and language from her TEQ Sheets, Purpose & Problem Statement, and Prospectus. They provide her with big pieces of the paper, and this makes the rest of the paper a much easier task. Some students ask if they can use the materials
they have created in these steps, and the answer is, “Yes, yes, yes, yes.” These steps have helped you build worthwhile ideas that connect to the worthwhile ideas of others. They are a kind of rough draft that takes advantage of what you know about the modes to create better critical thinking.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ashleigh Maas</th>
<th>Identity: An Elicited Performance</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professor Warren Piece</td>
<td>The title announces the topic (“Identity”) and then suggests a claim (“an Elicited Performance”). It sets the reader’s expectations for an argument.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English 1190-1603</td>
<td>The paper orients the reader to the topic with a description of search results. It does not start by appearing to take a side. Instead, it gives information.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>January 21, 2020</td>
<td>A problematic issue emerges that is not a pro/con topic.</td>
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The Internet has become a part of many peoples’ everyday lives. It provides instant access to information and to social networking sites. Because the Internet is very popular and so many people use it, a simple search can generate thousands, even millions, of hits. This information overload is overwhelming and takes too much time to sort through. Differentiating what’s useful from what is not becomes impossible. To compensate for the large amount of online data, filtering has been done by search engines and other online websites. These algorithms are personalized for the user so that fewer hits are generated and so that the information the users receive is the information they wanted. However, this personalized filtering quickly traps users in their own filter bubbles. A filter bubble is what people start living in once the search engines start feeding them information that’s tailored to the individual. Although the filtering and filter bubbles are necessary to prevent information overload, filter bubbles appear to be a problematic issue.¹

¹ The paper defines the filter bubble.
Filter bubbles are created from algorithms, which use past searches to control future search results. Even though the information is specifically tailored for the users, the users cannot customize what makes it into their filter bubble and what does not. Eli Pariser, author of *The Filter Bubble: What the Internet Is Hiding from You*, notes that personalized algorithms are so complex their own programmers can’t even determine what information will be output. If the designers cannot predict what information the user will receive, the validity of the computer’s interpretation could be questionable.

The paper further defines a key term to clarify the issue.

The use of an expert witness connects the argument to established maps of the topic.

Teacher’s suggestions:
1) consider making this paragraph part of the first one; 2) is “questionable” in last line the best word to use?
Search engines and other networking sites use the information users have searched to create an online identify for the users. While this private sense of personalization may seem nice, there is so much more to a person’s identity than what they have searched a few times. An identity is made up of many traits; so many, that the person themselves may not even be aware of some of them. If I’m having a bad day and go home and look up sad country songs and other melancholy things, my filter bubble will identify me as such. The next time I go to search country songs, I’m going to receive a long list of heart-wrenching melodies, even if I wanted an upbeat tune. Depending on the day, I can be adventurous, happy, sad, or even mean, and to be identified as just one of these things is completely inaccurate. Our sense of self is always evolving, with continuous and discontinuous aspects. Algorithms create a single identity for the user, but we are much more complex than that.
Mark Zuckerberg, creator of the social networking site Facebook, was quoted in Pariser’s book as stating, “You have one identity […] Having two identities for yourself is an example of a lack of integrity” (109). Because the founder of the site believes this, the site itself, along with many others, appeals to characteristics that ensure the one-identity schematic, whether they are conscious of it or not. There are multiple identities inside a single person, and a computer algorithm cannot pick up on that. By only allowing a user to have one identity and one personality, the filter bubble is reducing the individuality of users.

The argument strengthens with a second reference to an expert, but one whose views are rejected. The expert is part of the argument’s ethos. The paper makes clear the importance of the quotation. The paragraph concludes with additional insights related to the earlier ones.
With filter bubbles and computer algorithms, identity shapes media. What users click on and look at will influence the future advertisements that come up on their screen later. For example, Google personalizes its users by what they click on and their web history, while Facebook looks at what the user shares and who they interact with. This information is then used to deliver to users their own ads based upon what the algorithms think they like. I was recently doing some online shopping and stumbled upon some shoes that I liked. Later on that day, when I was playing the Facebook game *Words with Friends*, the exact shoes I was looking at popped up as an advertisement during my game. Who you are, or who the algorithms think you are, will determine the media you receive.

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<th>The paragraph begins by orienting the reader to the meaning of the forthcoming example.</th>
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<td>The “for example” is a further explanation of the central idea: “identity shapes media.”</td>
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<tr>
<td>A specific case illustrates the idea.</td>
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<tr>
<td>The paragraph ends by returning to the main idea, but it is now enriched with additional insights.</td>
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With that in mind, it is also important to note that identity may shape media, but media also shapes identity. If all the ads the users see are the ones they already look at or are already interested in, they are being trapped into what Pariser calls a “you loop.” New, different things aren’t filtered through to the users, and the user is once again stuck in the single identity filter bubble with no room to grow as an individual online. When identity shapes media, and media shapes identity, individuality is once again being reduced.

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<th>Teacher’s suggestion: the paragraph might not need to be separated from the preceding paragraph because it continues the same topic.</th>
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<td>The argument carefully recognizes a competing idea, but the idea is shown to be an aspect of an even larger question.</td>
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<tr>
<td>The argument uses the counter-argument to build a strong final sentence that further expands the claim.</td>
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Another problematic issue with filter bubbles and personalization is the inability to compute the context of the search. If I search the advantages of abortion, my filter bubble will trap me with an identity that supports abortion. However, the algorithm has no way of knowing that I am completely against it, and that I made that search for a research paper. Our identities also have different feelings within different contexts. If my filter bubble believes I’m for abortion, it may also think that I’m for hunting or the slaughtering of animals. Algorithms don’t know why searches are being made, but they will characterize the user’s identity according to them. In doing so, it’s possible the algorithm could feed the user the information s/he wanted, but it can also misrepresent them completely.

Context and situations can make people do things they never dreamed that they would. In 1963, Dr. Stanley Milgram’s experiment argued just that. He told his participants that he was doing a study on punishment and learning. One participant was the teacher, the other the learner. The teacher read a pair of words to the learner, who sat in an electrode-infused chair, and the learner recited them back. If the learner failed to do so, the teacher would deliver a shock to the learner, and each wrong answer increased the voltage on the chair. The question became how far would the teacher go, even if the teacher knew he/she was hurting the other participant?
Results concluded that many teachers became worried for the learners when they heard them kick and scream, and the teachers no longer wished to continue. However, Milgram would step out in a lab coat and reassure the teacher the experiment must go on, and most teachers would continue, despite the learner’s cries in agony. The learners weren’t actually being shocked, but the teachers didn’t know that. According to James Henslin’s *Sociology: A Down-to-Earth Approach*, “When there was no verbal feedback from the ‘learner,’ 65 percent of the ‘teachers’ pushed the lever all the way to 450 volts. Of those who could see the ‘learner,’ 40 percent turned the lever all the way. When Milgram added a second ‘teacher,’ a stooge who refused to go along with the experiment, only 5% of the ‘teachers’ turned the lever all the way” (168). Most people can never imagine torturing someone and consider the idea appalling. However, because of context and situation, people can do things completely out of their character. With filter bubbles and personalization, there is no context or situation: it’s a tracking of what is searched, and a future judgment is made from that material.

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<th>The previous paragraph emphasizes the writer, but this one emphasizes supporting evidence to strengthen the logos. Ashleigh’s argument places quotations at strategic points. In some cases, they are <em>illustrations</em>, and in others they provide <em>comparisons</em>. She uses the modes as tools for strengthening her argument.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Results concluded that many teachers became worried for the learners when they heard them kick and scream, and the teachers no longer wished to continue. However, Milgram would step out in a lab coat and reassure the teacher the experiment must go on, and most teachers would continue, despite the learner’s cries in agony. The learners weren’t actually being shocked, but the teachers didn’t know that. According to James Henslin’s <em>Sociology: A Down-to-Earth Approach</em>, “When there was no verbal feedback from the ‘learner,’ 65 percent of the ‘teachers’ pushed the lever all the way to 450 volts. Of those who could see the ‘learner,’ 40 percent turned the lever all the way. When Milgram added a second ‘teacher,’ a stooge who refused to go along with the experiment, only 5% of the ‘teachers’ turned the lever all the way” (168). Most people can never imagine torturing someone and consider the idea appalling. However, because of context and situation, people can do things completely out of their character. With filter bubbles and personalization, there is no context or situation: it’s a tracking of what is searched, and a future judgment is made from that material.</td>
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</table>
When people are ignorant of their situation and context, they fall prey to fundamental attribution error. According to Pariser’s book, this occurs when we “[A]ttribute people’s behavior to their inner traits and personality rather than to the situation they’re placed in” (116). I believe this error applies to computer algorithms and online personalization as well. If the computer cannot determine why the search is being made, the validity of the inferred material could be compromised. People must act in certain ways in specific situations to maintain social protocols. Sometimes people, let alone computers, cannot pick up on the difference. When this occurs, incorrect inferences can be made, and the identity of an online user can be misunderstood.

Ashleigh’s conclusion begins here. She seems to have reviewed all of her Function #4 sentences to see how her claim has developed. The paragraph collects those ideas, and she labels them with the help of Pariser’s book.

The paper could stop right here, and it would be a very good one, but the next paragraph puts her new map into a higher level framework.
Identity is not a fixed subject; we act differently under different circumstances and with different people. As Sherry Turkle, a professor at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, puts it in the journal *Contemporary Sociology*, “The self no longer simply plays different roles in different settings-something that people experience when, for example, one wakes up as a lover, makes breakfast as a mother, and drives to work as a lawyer” (644). The multitude of identities extends to the virtual world, as well. Users can be whoever they want to be online, and many people take this as a chance to discover or project different aspects of the self with identity play. Just like in country artist Brad Paisley’s song, “Online,” people perceive you how you want to be perceived. Turkle also notes, “Identity, from the Latin *idem*, has been used habitually to refer to the sameness between two qualities. On the Internet, however, one can be many, and one usually is” (645). Algorithms don’t pick up on this though. They analyze the search, and don’t take any of this into consideration, ignoring the plasticity of the self. The concept of identity and self is much too complex for a computer algorithm to accurately compute. Privacy expert Daniel Solove said it best in Pariser’s book when he exclaimed, “We are more than the bits of data we give off as we go about our lives” (115). In a culture where information is a new form of capital (*Zuboff, XX*), gathering this information and monetizing it is a source of the power that shapes identity.

Ashleigh’s TEQ Sheets, Purpose & Problem Statement, and Prospectus asked how the filter bubble tells us about identity. The ethos, logos, and pathos of her argument make the case.

The previous paragraph summarizes her argument. This paragraph extends the conclusion by asserting a more general idea that opens the question to the work of “the next writer” on the subject. She has earned the right to make such statement through her strategic use of the modes, her credible evidence, and logical development of the idea.
Other scholars share Turkle’s recognition of identity in a digital culture. Pasquale’s *Black Box Society* exposes the flawed assumptions of algorithms. O’Neil’s *Weapons of Math Destruction* offers her mathematician’s understanding of algorithmic culture as mathematically naive and dangerous (17). Watters series of books and her *Hack Education* often describe how educational technologies assume identity is more simple than it is.

Zuboff’s *The Age of Surveillance Capitalism* describes how information is a new form of capital that has reshaped how people relate to each other. Watter’s rejects much of her argument (“Education Technology”).

Arguments strengthen their ethos through quotation and citation. Ashleigh’s citations are good, but they are not enough to make the paper a “research paper.” They are a courtesy to the reader who wants to find out more about filter bubbles and identity. For this and all entries, format according to the examples in the Purdue OWL.

This format is taken from scholar.google.com. Correct it to meet MLA’s 8th edition format. Should there be a DOI?

Does this entry have a DOI?

Edit to meet MLA’s 8th edition.
The paper is making splendid progress. The thirteen TEQ Sheets show the author’s understanding that a good paper connects to existing maps. Developing a complex question creates opportunities to think even more about the topic. Using the Prospectus lays out a set of ideas that can be developed within the paper. The materials in the writing-to-learn steps have been used in the paper. You are expected to use these materials just as Ashley has done.

The paper’s success reflects Ashleigh’s use of the map model and her originality. She understands how to think critically, and she pays close attention to the mechanical aspects of her writing. Sentences are clear, the diction is excellent, and paragraphs develop logically.


Watters, Audrey. Hack Education (blog).


Assessing the first, full draft

Discussion: The assignment requires that the paper will be short (5-8 pages), a “miniature” research paper that demonstrates how to use the map model and its associated tools. Your paper is likely to be in a similar condition at this stage. To finish the project, you must assess the paper’s remaining tasks. To do that, do the following:

1. Go to Chapter 2, page 9 and use that rubric to assign a percentage to each of the following:
   a. TEQ Sheets . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . _________%
   b. Purpose & Problem Statement . . . . . . . . . . . . . . _________%
   c. Prospectus . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . _________%

Then, assign a percentage grade to the paper. Note that the rubric does NOT include criteria for the final paper itself. You must make a separate judgment:
   d. Paper . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . __________%

Now, average the four scores by adding them and dividing by 4:

   average . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . _________%

2. What are the strengths of this paper? What does the writer need to improve? Do you think that the paper would earn the same score if the process steps (TEQ Sheets, Purpose & Problem Statement, and Prospectus) were not counted? Do you think that they should be counted?

3. Note how the writer uses first person and personal stories in the paper; what are the risks and benefits of this strategy? Would you change this feature of the paper?

4. The in-text citations and the Works Cited are not in standard form. Use the Purdue OWL to re-write them in MLA format.
A Flow Chart for Argumentative Writing

Terms
- that shape ideas
- that select evidence

Questions
Your questions about oddities, contradictions and omissions in what has already been thought

Anomalies
- in readings
- in discussions
- in films
- in others’ ideas

Purpose
- course focus
- assignment’s connection to course focus

Gaps in the existing map
Your own questions about the existing map that attempt to explain the topic in a new and better way

Problem
unclear evidence, claims, frameworks in readings, notes, and viewings

Prospectus: your answer to the assignment. It lays out your main points by providing a full response to the starting point question. Note that it uses material from the question, especially any key terms that were developed. In many ways, it is the abstract for your paper. Of course, the paper isn’t written yet, so the prospectus is tentative.

Body Paragraphs based on topics in Rough Introduction
1. Introduce Topic
2. Present Data, Evidence
3. Return to Thesis with New Insight in each body paragraph

Prospectus Becomes Rough Introduction

Rough Conclusion
- Collect all #4 sentences into a single paragraph

Argument

Chapter 8 - Argument, Re-Drawing the Map: 40
For writers, an argument is not a fight, a form of bickering, or some other form of conflict. An argument identifies a worthwhile topic, and then it “makes the case” for a new idea about the topic. Such writing requires a variety of modes, especially when it relies on evidence. Evidence-based arguments are especially persuasive because they emphasize both logos and ethos. Most of all, they meet the readers’ expectation that a writer will go beyond a simple repetition of existing ideas or a simple statement of the writer’s subjective beliefs. Argument creates the opportunity to add insights, judgments and corrections to the existing map of a topic.