**OUTLINES TO ACCOMPANY THE AUDIO SERIES** 

# INTRODUCTORY LOGIC



# Tape #1: "Informal Fallacies" by R.C. Sproul

- I. Organon (Greek for instrument) logic is the instrument (organon) by which all science operates.
- II. Reason is primary in the order of knowing, not being. Reason is how we apprehend that which is known.
- III. We do not have a God who speaks in contradictions. Logic is essential in interpreting the Scriptures.
- IV. A fallacy is a type of incorrect argument. Informal fallacies in logic are fallacies caused by carelessness and inattentiveness. They are not technical in nature.
- V. The fallacy of the irrelevant conclusion an argument that does not establish what it intends to establish.
  - A. Argumentum ad baculum persuasion by force "might makes right" argument by intimidation.
  - B. *Ad hominem* reasoning to the man.
    - 1. Argumentum ad hominem abusive destroy the argument by attacking the man.
    - 2. Argumentum ad hominem circumstantial an argument which appeals to the circumstances surrounding an opponent.
    - 3. *Argumentum ad ignorantian* argument from ignorance. It is true because it has never been proved false.
    - 4. Argumentum ad misercordiam an argument which appeals to pity.

# Tape #3: "Major Ideas" by R.C. Sproul

- I. The law of noncontradiction
  - A. A cannot be A and non-A at the same time and in the same sense.
  - B. A statement and its negation cannot be true simultaneously.
- II. Contradiction vs. paradox
  - A. The classic definition of a paradox is something which appears contradictory. A paradox looks like a contradiction, but it is not a contradiction.
  - B. A paradox is not a contradiction although unfortunately the words are sometimes used synonymously.
- III. The standard syllogism
  - A. A syllogism is a form of thought in which a conclusion is inferred from two premises.
  - B. In a syllogism we find a major term, a minor term, and a middle term.

Example: All men are mortal (major premise).

Socrates is a man (minor premise).

Therefore, Socrates is mortal (conclusion).

- 1. The major term is the predicate of the conclusion (mortality).
- 2. The minor term is the subject of the conclusion (Socrates).
- 3. The middle term is found in both premises but not in the conclusion (man).

# Tape #4: "Formal Propositions and Venn Diagrams" by R.C. Sproul

- I. The Either/Or Fallacy (Black/White Fallacy)
  - A. Options are limited to two when there are actually three or more options.
  - B. The fallacy of the impossible tertium quid (third alternative).
    - 1. In a situation which is actually either/or people try to resolve the situation by introducing a third alternative.
    - 2. This fallacy frequently occurs in situations when prefixes such as *non*, *im*, *in*, and *dis* are used. For example, something is either possible or impossible. There is no third alternative.

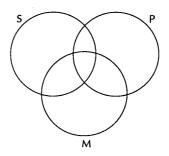
### II. Symbolism

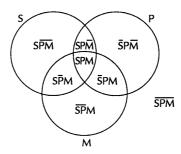
- A. Letters such as S, P, and M are used to represent subject, prediciate, and middle, respectively.
- B. To say that there are no members of a class S we write S = O. To say that there are members of a class S we write  $S \neq O$ .
- C. The class of things which belong to both classes S and P is represented by SP.
- D. The class of all things which is non-S is represented by  $\overline{S}$ .
- E. To state an E proposition (No S is P) we can write SP = O. Likewise, an I proposition (Some S is P) can be written  $SP \neq O$ , an A proposition (All S is P) can be written  $S\overline{P} = O$  and an O proposition (Some S is not P) can be written  $S\overline{P} \neq O$ .

### Tape #5: "Using Venn Diagrams to Test Validity" by R.C. Sproul

### I. Diagramming syllogisms

A. Three overlapping circles are used representing the minor term, the major term, and the middle term represented by S (subject), P (predicate), and M (middle) respectively.





C. To test for validity we diagram the two premises and then determine if we have already diagrammed the conclusion. That is, if no additional shading is needed the argument is valid. If additional shading is needed then the argument is invalid.

Example #1: A valid argument.

All M is P.
All S is M.
Therefore, All S is P.

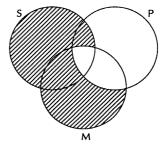


Diagram the two premises by shading the circles.

To test for validity we observe that the conclusion has also been diagrammed, that is, no additional shading is needed.

Here we see that All S is P.

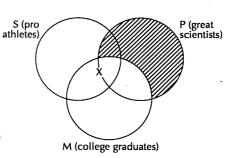
### C. Example #2:

All great scientists are college graduates.

Some professional athletes are college graduates.

Therefore, some professional athletes are great scientists.

Translating, we have S is professional athletes, P is great scientists and M is college graduates.



All P is M.

Some S is M.

Therefore, Some S is P.

The X placed on the line shows that it could be placed in either SPM or SPM. Since it is not possible to determine from the premises in which region the X should be placed we conclude that the argument is invalid.

### D. Example #3:

All miners are strong.
All golfers are strong.

All miners are golfers.

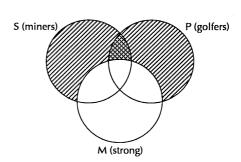
Translating, we have S is miners, P is golfers, and M is strong.

All S is M.

All P is M.

Therefore, All S is P.

The argument is invalid.



### E. Example #4:

Some men are black.

Some men are not black.

Therefore, some women are black.

This argument cannot be diagrammed because a fourth term has been introduced.

# Tape #6: "More on Testing Syllogisms" by R.C. Sproul

- I. Rules for testing syllogisms without Venn diagrams.
  - A. A valid syllogism must contain exactly three terms all of which are used in the same sense throughout the argument.
    - 1. The fallacy of four terms (actually four or more).
    - 2. The fallacy of equivocation or ambiguity (meaning change).
  - B. The middle term must be distributed in at least one premise.
    - 1. A term is distributed in a premise when the premise refers to all the members of the class designated by the term.
    - 2. The fallacy of the undistributed middle term.
  - C. No term can be distributed in the conclusion which is not distributed in the premises.
  - D. No valid syllogism contains two negative premises.
  - E. If either premise is negative then the conclusion must be negative.
  - F. No valid syllogism with a particular conclusion can have two universal premises.
- II. Arguments in normal rational discourse may be translated into formal language to test validity.